

20 Guidance in the Elementary School

~~9/3~~





☞ Guidance

in the Elementary School:

A Book of Readings

EDITED BY

HERMAN J. PETERS

ANTHONY C. RICCIO

JOSEPH J. QUARANTA

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY



THE MACMILLAN COMPANY, NEW YORK

COLLIER-MACMILLAN LIMITED, LONDON

© The Macmillan Company 1963

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced in any form without permission in writing from the publisher, except by a reviewer who wishes to quote brief passages in connection with a review written for inclusion in a magazine or newspaper.

First Printing

~~6038~~
6138

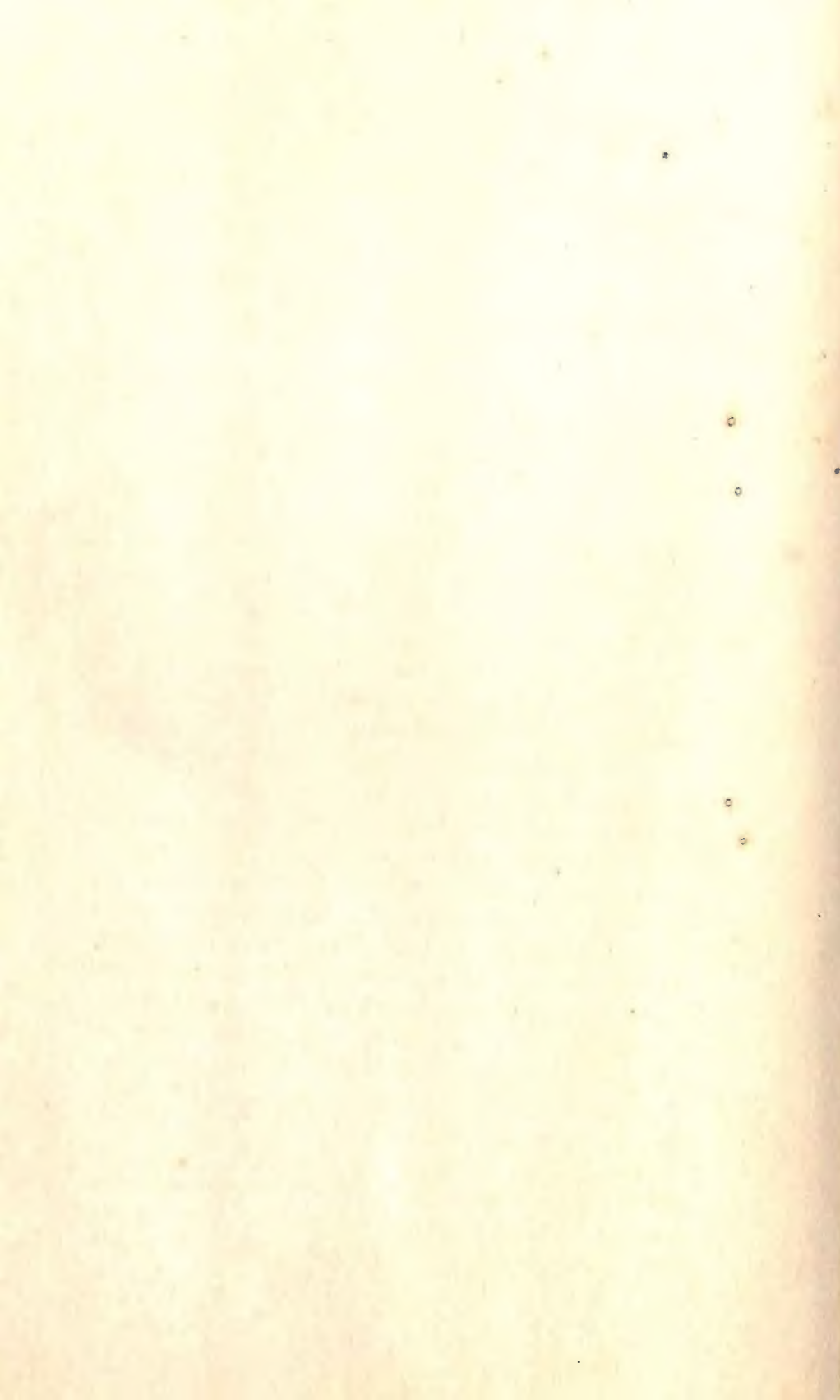
Library of Congress catalog card number: 63-13571

The Macmillan Company, New York
Collier-Macmillan Canada, Ltd., Toronto, Ontario
Divisions of The Crowell-Collier Publishing Company

Printed in the United States of America

To the Pioneers in

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE



Preface

Now that organized guidance services are characteristic of all but a handful of reputable secondary schools, a number of leaders in the guidance movement are turning their attention to the elementary school. The factors responsible for this surge of interest in elementary school guidance are multiple and complex. First, there is the argument that if guidance services are valuable they should be available to elementary school students. Second, there is the theoretical stance that guidance is a process, developmental and continuous in nature, which should assist the individual during his formative years. Third, there is societal pressure to employ guidance workers to identify talented pupils as soon as possible so that these pupils might be encouraged to engage in the pursuit of excellence. These three reasons are not exhaustive, but they appear to be the principal reasons for advocating the establishment of organized guidance services at the elementary school level.

Although there is a great deal of interest in elementary school guidance, materials are relatively scarce in such a new field. This problem is compounded by the fact that few pertinent textbooks share common conceptualization of ele-

mentary school guidance services. In effect, then, students enrolled in courses in elementary school guidance see only a part of this broadly expanding field; they see the field through the eyes of their textbook writers, few of whom are in agreement. Hence, there is a need for a well-organized collection of authoritative opinion and research if the student of elementary school guidance is to be exposed to, and stimulated by, the conflicting and complementary ideas that make elementary school guidance such a challenging and exciting area of study. In the educative process, students and in-service personnel should be provided the opportunity of choosing among alternative approaches to real and practical problems. *Guidance in the Elementary School: A Book of Readings* is intended to provide the reader with such an opportunity.

The book is divided into eight parts. The first part is concerned with the conceptualizations which professional educators employ in providing a rationale for the establishment of elementary school guidance programs. The second part treats of the methods which have proven effective in appraising the level of development of elementary school pupils. The third part is focused upon the relationship of the elementary school child to the world of work. Counseling the elementary school child is emphasized in the fourth part. The fifth part deals with the learning situation in the elementary classroom. The status of research in elementary school guidance is discussed in Part Six. Part Seven is concerned with the interpersonal relationships of elementary school guidance personnel. The text is concluded with a discussion of the major issues in the field.

The articles comprising each of these eight parts were selected because, in the judgment of the editors, they represented the best statement of the particular positions taken by leaders in the field.

Representativeness, provocativeness, definitiveness, clarity of expression—these were the criteria employed by the editors. Thus, under one cover, the editors have attempted to present the best thought currently available in the area under study.

Grateful acknowledgment is made to the authors and publishers of the articles which comprise this book for the courteous manner in which they granted permission to reproduce their material. Appropriate citation of the source of each article is given in the text.

H. J. P.

A. C. R.

J. J. Q.

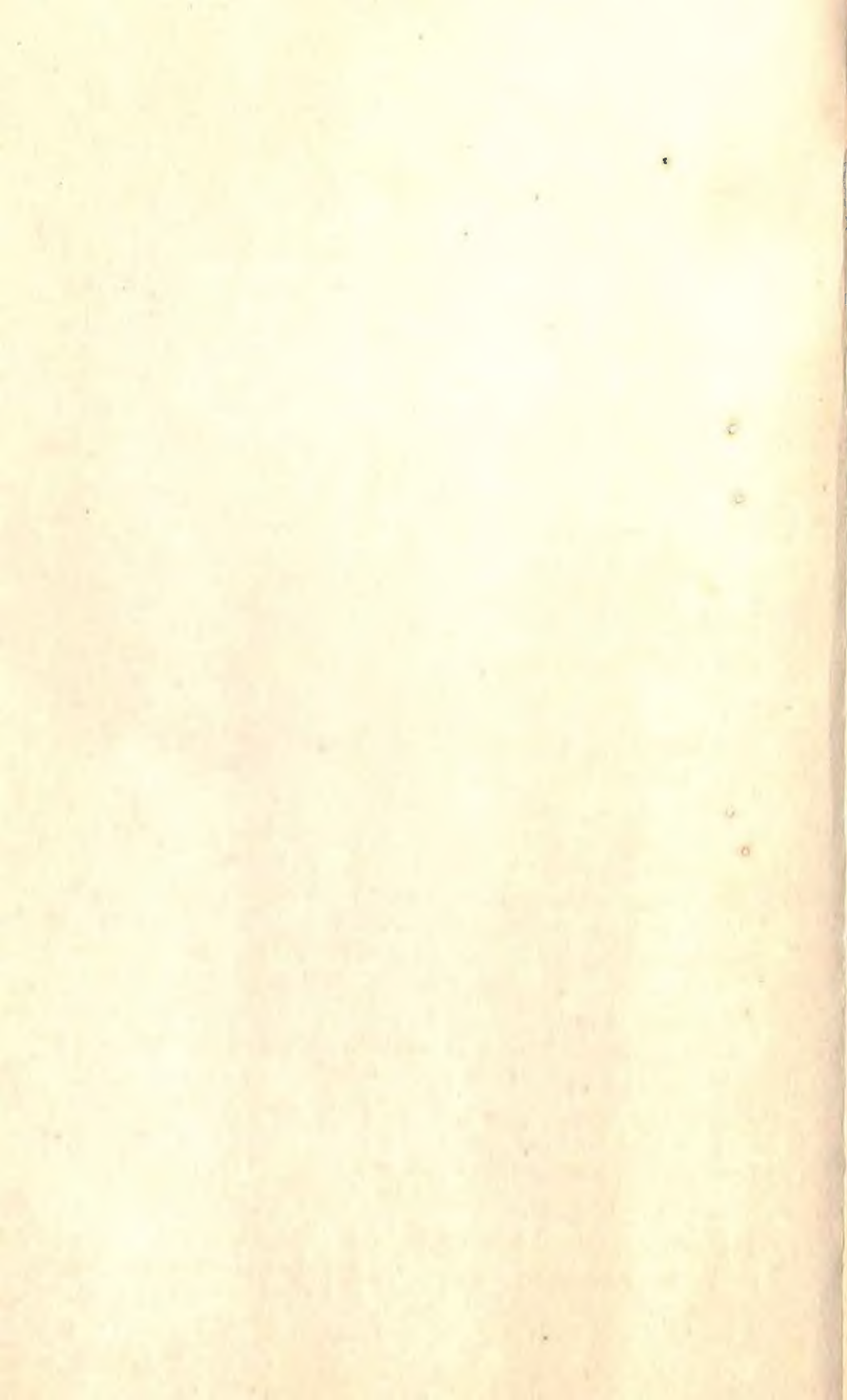


Table of Contents

PREFACE	vii
Part One CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE	1
The Case for Guidance Services in the Elementary School by <i>N. Harry Camp, Jr.</i>	3
Guidance by <i>Harold F. Cottingham</i>	21
Developing an Understanding of Human Behavior at the Elementary School Level by <i>Frances Smythe Stiles</i>	25
Guidance: A Longitudinal and a Differential View by <i>Gail F. Farwell and Herman J. Peters</i>	34
Guidance Services Recommended by Public and Parochial-School Teachers by <i>Anthony C. Riccio and Donald J. Weh-meyer</i>	40
The Guidance-Oriented Elementary Teacher by <i>Frances R. Harper</i>	48
Guidance in the Elementary School by <i>Anna R. Meeks</i>	52
Part Two INDIVIDUAL APPRAISAL OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILD	57
Techniques of Studying Children by <i>Sybil Richardson</i>	59
Teacher Knowledge of Pupil Data and Marking Practices at the	

Elementary School Level by <i>Robert L. Baker and Roy P. Doyle</i>	70
Identifying Children Through Measurements by <i>Herbert J. Klausmeier</i>	76
Identifying the Insecure Child: III. The Use of Children's Drawings by <i>William E. Martin</i>	83
Situational Play Therapy with Normal Children by <i>Clark E. Moustakas</i>	96
Accepting Regional Language Differences in School by <i>Loren R. Tomlinson</i>	108
The Case Study—A Means of Introducing Guidance Services by <i>Gail F. Farwell and Anthony C. Riccio</i>	112
 Part Three THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILD AND THE WORLD OF WORK	 117
Vocational Guidance in the Elementary School by <i>Walter M. Lifton</i>	119
The Roots of Careers by <i>Robert P. O'Hara</i>	123
Occupational Information in Elementary Education by <i>Goldie R. Kaback</i>	128
Occupational Choice of Twelve-Year-Olds by <i>Donald A. Davis, Nellie Hagan, and Judie Strouf</i>	135
Vocational Guidance—How and When by <i>Donald E. Kitch</i>	139
 Part Four COUNSELING WITH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILD	 147
Differential Factors between Elementary and Secondary School Counseling by <i>Herman J. Peters</i>	149
Pupil-Teacher Conferences by <i>Joseph Moray</i>	159
Play as a Counselor's Tool by <i>George W. Murphy</i>	162
A Day in the Life of an Elementary School Counselor by <i>Barbara Quilling</i>	168
 Part Five GUIDANCE AND THE LEARNING SITUATION IN THE ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM	 171
Special Part-time Classes for Emotionally Disturbed Children in a Regular Elementary School by <i>John W. Howe</i>	173

Classroom Teacher Guidance in Relation to Learning Activities by <i>Frances G. Koenig</i>	182
Behavior Problems of Children as Viewed by Teachers and Men- tal Hygienists by <i>George A. W. Stouffer, Jr.</i>	192
Part Six GUIDANCE RESEARCH AT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL	207
The Functions of Successful Discipline by <i>Robert J. Havighurst</i>	209
Action Research Improves an Aspect of Elementary School Guid- ance by <i>Ira J. Gordon</i>	214
*Some Criteria for Evaluating Elementary-School Guidance Serv- ices by <i>William Coleman</i>	218
*Acceptance and Performance among Gifted Elementary-School Children by <i>Meta F. Williams</i>	224
Impact of First Grade Entrance upon the Socialization of the Child: Changes after Eight Months of School by <i>Celia Burns</i> <i>Stendler and Norman Young</i>	229
Are Elementary Counselors Doing the Job? by <i>Robert N. Hart</i>	241
Part Seven INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS OF ELE- MENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE PERSONNEL	245
Organizing for Guidance in the Elementary School by <i>Raymond</i> <i>Patouillet</i>	247
* Practical Guidance Services in the Elementary School by <i>Helen</i> <i>White and Mary Edith Banes</i>	258
Roles of Guidance Workers in the Elementary Schools by <i>Science</i> <i>Research Associates, Inc.</i>	266
Self-Understanding in Childhood and Adolescence by <i>Arthur T.</i> <i>Jersild</i>	271
The Consultant in Elementary School Guidance by <i>Donald</i> <i>Dinkmeyer</i>	281
An Administrator's Thoughts About Counseling by <i>W. Frederick</i> <i>Staub</i>	287
Part Eight ISSUES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE	293
Developmental Issues in Child Guidance: Plasticity, Direction and Conformity by <i>David P. Ausubel</i>	295

Guidance Foci in Elementary Schools <i>by Claude W. Grant</i>	304
Guidance Functions of Elementary School Personnel <i>by Betty J. Bosdell</i>	315
Let's NOT TELL Parents Their Children's I.Q.'s <i>by John A. R. Wilson</i>	321
Let's TELL Parents Their Children's I.Q.'s <i>by Robert Topp</i>	326

29 Guidance in the Elementary School



Part One

CONCEPTUALIZATIONS
OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
GUIDANCE



☞ The Case for Guidance Services in the Elementary School

N. HARRY CAMP, JR.

Despite the fact that leading educators have long contended that the program of guidance services follows the pupil from his first school registration to his graduation from high school, the provision for well-planned guidance programs in the elementary school has lagged considerably. Today there is significant evidence, however, which shows that practice is beginning to catch up with theory. There is a movement to provide a program of guidance services sensitive to the needs of elementary school children.

The rapid growth of guidance services in the elementary school was listed by Jones and Miller as one of the ten most significant trends in pupil personnel and guidance services during the past ten years.[11] This study presented for the first time a nation-wide picture of the extent of guidance counselors who serve in elementary schools. Their report reveals that there are some 711 counselors who serve in elementary schools, 408 of whom devote half time or more to their professional duties. Two additional studies substantiate the Jones and Miller findings. One, covering 611 elementary schools in 19 states, reported that 34.7 per cent of the schools had part or full time services of a counselor.[1] A second, covering 354 elementary schools in 28 states, reported a total of 249 guidance workers, 116 of whom were full time, 31 half-time, and 102 less than half-time.[18]

The recognition of the need for and the growth in the provision for pupil personnel and guidance services in the elementary school shown by these studies reflects the broadening concept of guidance in the United

REPRINTED FROM *EDUCATION*, 75, 7 (MARCH 1955), 419-431, BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR.

States during the past half century. Although this trend is encouraging it should not be taken as a signal for complacency. There are evidences and trends existing in our society today which point to an even greater need for a more general acceptance of guidance services in the elementary school. It is the purpose of this discussion to explore these forces in order to reaffirm the need for expanding the provision for guidance services to young children.

Forces in a Dynamic Modern Society

We live in a world vastly more complicated than that of our forefathers. This is a period of rapid social change and state of national and world uncertainty. We are more than ever aware of the disrupting influences which local, state, national, and world conditions have upon parents and their children. Day by day problems of growing up are intensified by the tension which characterizes our daily environments. It would be impossible to mention here all of these disturbing factors, but for purposes of illustration and emphasis we will discuss four which show poignantly that parents and their children do have more problems to cope with than they had in years gone by. This points up the need for planned guidance services for young children which will recognize their problems sooner and take steps to handle them.

DEMANDS OF SOCIETY. Miraculous discoveries in the physical sciences pour forth so fast that they seem to stumble over each other. With them come new ways of living, working, and communicating among humans. The pace of living is rapid, highly complicated, and extremely competitive, with emphasis upon the achievement of success. Drive and search for it at any cost becomes foremost. Unfortunately, money consciousness and the drive for power become the instruments for achieving success. This warped concept insists upon success in spite of the individual's real endowment. There is a failure to realize that not all people possess the same qualities for achieving success and that only a few can reach the top while others are pushed aside. Many of these individuals refuse to accept their places and try over and over again to better themselves. New frustrations arise and they become resentful and hostile, and may even resort to unlawful ways of behaving.

MOBILITY OF THE POPULATION. During the past twenty-five years there has been a shift from rural to urban modes of living. Approximately three-fourths of American children live in urban areas. A more recent

population trend has been from centers of urban areas to urban suburbs. In addition, there has been a general shift of the population from middle-west to west, from northeastern seaboard to southern middle seaboard, from south to eastern industrial centers, and from the eastern seaboard to Florida and Texas.

Today's families are on the move more than families used to be. During World War II wives with children followed their husbands from one military camp to another while they were stationed in this country. In such instances it was difficult for children to establish a feeling of belongingness to home, friends, neighborhood, and school. The Korean police actions and the threat of World War III have sent fathers into the armed services and their children are being deprived of a father when it is most important. The evils of Momism—the identification of boys with their mothers rather than their fathers—have taken their toll in confusion and adjustment problems. Occupational nomadism is on the increase. Workers migrate with their families from one place to another and settle temporarily whenever they can find employment. Frequent moving deprives children of that feeling of stability which comes when roots can grow in one place.

CHANGES IN FAMILY AND HOME LIFE. Industrialization, world tension, and mobility of the population are in part responsible for disrupting influences in family and home life. Boom town communities are springing up all over the country and cities have grown bigger and bigger. Overcrowding has been the result. This, in turn, creates conditions which invariably add to the child's problems of adapting to his environments. In many areas there is a lack of suitable living quarters, sanitation facilities, police protection, recreation, and educational facilities. Crowding in industrial neighborhoods tends to destroy a child's sense of individuality and to lessen self-sufficiency. Children become uncomfortable and ill at ease when people are not about. Therefore they seek places where there are crowds—movies, drugstores, pool halls, *et cetera*. These environments often have an unwholesome influence.

Lack of housing leads to overcrowded living conditions. Homes have grown smaller and smaller and the number of children in a family has increased. The inevitable consequence is frustration of children's trust and respect for other people—especially the mother and father. Lazy habits of dress and sexual activities are apt to lead to disillusionment about sex. Because there is no privacy in the home children view openly sexual activities. Without privacy children find it difficult to develop self-

concepts and self-respect and their values become warped. All the child does day and night is in full view of everyone in the family. Irritability, touchiness, tension, and adjustment problems inevitably follow.

The rising standard of living and soaring prices have also added to the confusion. Fathers often find it necessary to work considerable distances from home and spend less time with children when they need him most. Mothers work to help support the family or to increase the family income and improve the socio-economic status. While mothers are at work children are often not in competent hands. They are parked with friends and relatives or left to shift for themselves. Working parents become too busy and are too tired to play with their children, to do interesting things with them, or to give them the counseling they desire. The stress and strain of making a living affects the adjustment of parents and creates an unfavorable pattern of family attitude and atmosphere. Parents become emotional and highstrung, and discipline is either erratic or too strict. Overburdened, inadequate, and rejecting mothers often develop strong anxiety feelings. Lack of communication and reduced intimacy between members of the family lead to rejection and punishment of the children. This pattern of inconsistency and show of emotion frightens and confuses the child. As a result, he becomes tense and filled with anxiety, and aggressive, anti-authoritarian, anti-social behavior results. We may have a school learning and behavior problem, and even a budding delinquent on our hands. Emotional tension in the family often leads to broken homes. It is significant that a large share of children with problems come from broken homes or those rendered incomplete by absence of mother or father.

CONFLICTING SOCIAL VALUES. The American scene is dominated by different, frequently contradictory cultures, each with its particular customs and mores. One extreme is unethical—the other is puritanical. In the center there is confusion and conflict. Goals and practices are not clear. In this lack of harmony it is difficult to know which path to follow.

Mothers are confused by the wide variety of methods advocated for bringing up children. They become overanxious about their child's growth and development. They worry about whether their child conforms to what is considered the norm in physical-mental-emotional-social growth. Some mothers obsessively count calories, check the number of stools, *et cetera*.

☞ The Rapidly Accelerating Trend Toward Maladjustment

The Extent of Maladjustment.—Most children adapt themselves and learn well in school. For reasons that are self-evident, however, there is a noticeable increase in the number of adjustment problems and serious cases of maladjustment which come to the attention of school personnel. It has been estimated that between ten and twenty per cent of the children enrolled in public elementary schools represent some kind of educational problem.[9] These range from severely disturbed children with emotional and behavior problems, to children with intellectual handicaps and learning difficulties. One in twenty does not adapt or learn successfully in school. These children with adjustment problems need help. The measures taken may vary from the survey of their specific needs, strengths, and limitations and the adjustment of the curriculum and methods of instruction to adjustment of personal relationships in the classroom and, perhaps, supportive therapy by the guidance specialist.

Among the elementary pupils who have adjustment problems, many are so severely disturbed that they need more specialized study and treatment than the school can provide. The Mid-Century White House Conference on Children and Youth (1950) stated that one-fourth of all elementary school children need some kind of special treatment for social-emotional adjustment. Although it is impractical for the guidance personnel to provide complete therapy for these children, they can make the necessary preliminary study.

THE RISE OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY. Juvenile delinquency is rising sharply. Last year about one million children under 18 in this country were involved with the police because of misbehavior.[6] About one-third of those apprehended came before the juvenile courts. What is even more shocking, however, are the large numbers who are never apprehended. Although most delinquents do not have their first brush with the law until their early teens, there is ample evidence to show that the symptoms of their lack of adjustment were functioning and observable during their attendance in the elementary school. Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck found in their study that nearly half of the delinquents clearly indicated their maladjustment before they were 8 years of age by stealing, playing truant, running away, and destroying property.[8] It is also significant for our discussion that most delinquents are "school misfits." For example,

of 187 boys studied at New York State's Randall Island Reformatory, not one could read at his mental ability level, and 90 per cent had failed in school.[14] Cantarow found that two-thirds of the 347 cases at the Delaware County, Pennsylvania, Juvenile Court had misbehaved at school, played truant, or disliked school.[14]

The delinquency problem has to be attacked at its source by the entire community working together. The schools alone cannot change slum neighborhoods or unfavorable home life. They can help to prevent delinquency by identifying boys and girls with predelinquent tendencies and guiding them to use adjustive ways of solving their problems. Through a program of guidance services the elementary school can take steps to help prevent delinquency through: (1) understanding delinquency, (2) identifying early symptoms of anti-social behavior, (3) adjusting the school program to the child, and (4) helping parents to improve family life and attitudes.

Mounting Enrollments in the Elementary Schools

Some 26 million children are presently enrolled in public elementary schools. The schools are faced with the problem of meeting this staggering load because of the tremendous increase in the birth rate during World War II and the continued upward trend since that time. Unfortunately, the situation will become even worse. Reliable estimates indicate that the full extent of the large numbers of births between 1942 and 1953 will not be felt in the elementary schools until 1958. If the present birth rate continues we can expect 30,000,000 pupils in the elementary schools by 1978.[5]

Both the present and future enrollment pose serious problems for the schools. One of these is the basic matter of school housing. This problem has not been met and schools are dangerously overcrowded. Classrooms are bulging and class size has grown too large for effective instruction. Schools have resorted to the use of temporary, ill-equipped facilities and half-day sessions. In September, 1954, it was reported that 600,000 children in the United States were attending half-day sessions.[5]

Another result of increased enrollments is a serious shortage of adequately trained teachers. Forty-six of the forty-eight states report they cannot get enough competent elementary teachers. To meet this shortage

it has been necessary to employ inexperienced and partially or completely uncertified teachers. In September, 1954, more substandard or emergency teachers were employed than ever before—72,000 as compared to 70,000 in 1953.[5]

Under these conditions some 4,000,000 children today are not getting the maximum benefit from their days in the elementary school. These children are not being exposed to the kinds of facilities, the quality of instruction, and the individual attention we recognize as being essential to the growth and development of happy adult personalities.

Inadequate Application of Knowledge from Related Disciplines

The implications which the work of specialists in the field of psychology, psychiatry, sociology, and mental hygiene have for elementary guidance are inescapable. Yet, in their actual practice with children, educators across the country neglect to use this valuable source material as effectively as they should.

The knowledge of skills and insights of these disciplines point up the need for providing guidance services for children in the first six grades. We will discuss briefly some of this knowledge.

ALL CHILDREN HAVE PROBLEMS. Every child has major problems as he matures, but fortunately most children are able to solve their problems without the aid of clinical specialists. In meeting their everyday problems, however, children need the help of understanding adults. The problems which loom so enormous to them often never get a hearing from the teacher or parent. The failure to recognize the existence of problems and the failure to provide help in their solution often plants the seeds of maladjustment. Therefore, children need guidance to help them over the mental and emotional hump of growing up. Parents need education in child rearing and teachers need training to become patient and understanding of individual needs and to know that the development of healthy personalities is a slow process.

DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDANCE IS IMPORTANT. In a traditional school it is believed that the pupils bring their minds to school to be trained. The sole purpose is the mastery of subject matter. Pupils have little to say about classroom activities and the teacher's attitude toward her pupils is formal and rigid. The children are expected to be quiet, to respond almost auto-

matically, and to refrain from wiggling or whimpering. The child's need to learn to read, write, master arithmetic, spell, converse, and discuss are clearly recognized, but little attention is given to the development of his normal physical behavior, personality, and social graces.

Specialists give us a clear picture of the functioning of human behavior. A child goes through a process of physical-emotional-mental growth during which he learns to achieve the best possible adjustment for him. The struggle to achieve this aim persists throughout his life and thus is a continuous process highlighted by certain times of crisis when problems are confronted and solved. Such crises can be linked to the child's biological developments and to the stresses and strains he experiences throughout infancy, childhood, and adolescence. We are not positive what age is the most difficult one, but we can say that experiences in childhood are the most important ones for healthy development. These basic truths are often overlooked in planning the elementary school educational program.

Psychologists recognize that children have basic needs in several areas which have to be met for optimal personality growth and development. There are needs to be met in the physical, emotional, and social areas as well as in the intellectual. We know that a great many things take place in the classroom besides intellectual matters. For example, lifetime social attitudes and ways of behaving are learned. It is important to learn the three R's, but we need to spend time stressing learning the fourth R—relationship; that is, emotional relationship.[3] There is need to get away from the idea of the school as a social vacuum where children automatically shed their individual needs, ambitions, and conflicts to assume the stereotyped role of learner. Children bring their insecurities and other emotional problems into the classroom. It is also true that adults cannot automatically shed their particular needs and uncertainties and assume the stereotype of teacher. Consideration of these facts is imperative because of the far-reaching effect they have upon the kind of learning and teaching which results.

The Mid-Century White House Conference on Children and Youth agreed that one of the major objectives of the elementary school should be to further the all-round development of a healthy personality in every child. Specialists agree then that optimal adjustment of the whole child requires consideration of these dynamic factors along with the intellectual. One proof of this is found in the generally accepted fact that vocational maladjustment results because of unsatisfactory personal, emotional, and

social factors. This emphasizes the neglect of the dynamic factors of adjustment and points up the need for specialists who can help provide the service necessary to fill this obvious gap in the elementary school program.

A well-planned program of guidance services is needed to facilitate the realization of this aim. Stress in guidance is placed upon all phases of the child's personality growth and development, thus emphasizing a *positive* and *preventive* approach to the adjustment problems of children. The program should be predicated upon the belief that the task of the school is not only to teach subjects but to teach children—to teach children in such a way that they have a feeling of achievement so that their school attendance can be happy. Although this seems self-evident, many elementary school administrators seem more concerned about the school program than about the children.

Developmental guidance implies education based upon the interests, needs, and abilities of the children it serves. First priority is given to the discovery of these patterns in each child. Intelligence testing is essential but more stress than has been given heretofore needs to be placed upon children's aptitudes, interests, and emotions. Children need to be tested periodically with regard to their interests and encouraged in them. Once these interests, capabilities, and needs have been identified, the curriculum can be built around them. Teachers can provide opportunities for developing initiative and creativity and set up the conditions necessary for the discovery and development of all kinds of abilities and talents. This recognition of the individual as a person builds better understanding of each child and enables teachers and parents to get a long range view of the child's growth and development. In this way the child will become a mature, happy adult.

The developmental approach in guidance is in contrast with "crisis" guidance which is predicted in terms of emergencies. When a child fails to progress academically, when a child is truant, when a child is a behavior problem, *et cetera*, guidance personnel are expected to act immediately and come up with sure-fire remedies that will solve the problem or clear up the difficulty. It should be emphasized here that the guidance counselor is concerned with the maturation of the child's learning ability, but does not take over the functions of the teacher. The counselor is also concerned with the child's physical-social-emotional growth, but he does not take over the functions of the medical doctor, psychologist, or psychiatrist. The counselor is needed as a resource person because he is familiar

with the work of all these specialists and can integrate into the total educational program the values each of these specialists has to offer.

PREVENTION OF MALADJUSTMENT. It is generally accepted psychological truth that harmful habits of adjustment acquired at an early age are extremely difficult to change and often are the basis for more serious maladjustment. Therefore, early prevention of maladjustment is more important than later efforts at change. This implies early detection of symptoms of non-adjustment and the provision for the appropriate treatment. The first step in helping a child change non-adjustive behavior is to understand his motivations as fully as possible. We therefore have to be constantly on the alert for causes of deviating behavior and then eliminate or alleviate these causative factors. By dealing with the relatively simple problems promptly and constructively, serious maladjustment can be prevented, and the need for clinical services reduced. The need for prevention through early discovery and treatment of adjustment problems was emphasized at the White House Conference on Education for Children and Youth.

The majority of children are born emotionally-physically-mentally normal and healthy. Some few children are relatively handicapped in one or more of these areas. One educational aim should be to strive to protect these normally healthy children from physical or psychological damage by their environments, thereby preventing severe cases of maladjustment from becoming too numerous. Guidance with children can be more effective in the elementary school than at any other educational level. Human behavior specialists are convinced that emotional problems are more amenable to treatment during these years. This is true because the feelings of the child are close to the surface and are readily expressed. We also know that habitual behavior patterns and would-be lifelong attitudes are in the formative stages during the years from 6 to 12. With the proper assistance, positive and preventive steps can be initiated which will do much to forestall the necessity for having to work with serious adjustment problems at the junior and senior high school levels. Counselors at these levels know that learning, emotional, behavior, and personality problems do not wait until junior high school to develop. These specialists believe that elementary school counselors are needed to assist in the recognition of symptoms of adjustment problems and to work with the child, teacher, and his parents in order to prevent future difficulties.

It is evident, then, that the services provided by the elementary school need to be expanded. Besides its educational aim, the school needs to

function as an agency for prevention of mental maladjustment. Development of all-round healthy children cannot be the sole responsibility of the classroom teacher. Counselors are needed to help teachers become aware of the emotional difficulties in children because only they can prevent them from developing further. We know that great troubles arise from small ones. We also know that the more promptly mental difficulties or anti-social symptoms can be discovered the better is our possibility of counteracting them. We need, therefore, to give teachers and parents factual knowledge whereby preventive rather than rehabilitative or reformatory measures can be taken. With such a preventive program we are able to detect at an early stage the individual who later on becomes a delinquent or criminal. The most effective approach to the needs of children is for the guidance specialist to work with teachers and parents to help them understand the psychological needs and problems of children. Therefore, it should be fully agreed that counselors be given time for this job rather than spend full time giving tests and working with problem children.

CHILDREN VARY IN THEIR ABILITIES. Psychologists have found that children are different and that they mature at their own unique rates of speed. The idea of individual differences precludes that there is a pattern of adjustment that is normal for each child within the framework of the society in which he lives. Traditionally, the aims of education were realized by strict discipline, by excessive homework, and by requiring all children to maintain the same arbitrary standards. This was a mass attempt to mold children into the same formula.

Recognizing individual differences makes the matter of readiness for learning and expectation level extremely important. Although most children are ready to read in the first grade, we may find some who are not ready until second, or even third grade. Many of the expectations we have of children seem unreasonable to them. In some instances levels of expectations are unrealistic. If a child comes to school lacking the experiences which prepare him for reading readiness, the teacher adds to the pressure when she displays impatience with his progress, or when she presents tasks for which he is not ready.

It is inescapable that schools take individual differences into consideration. Because of large classes differentiation is a difficult task, but it can be facilitated by providing guidance specialists on a larger scale than heretofore. These specialists are needed to assist in the identification of slowly maturing children, and to help teachers set up standards of attain-

ment for each child in terms of his needs, aptitudes, interests, and abilities with the primary emphasis upon total personality development. The counselor can aid the teacher by helping her point out to the child that he should try to achieve realistic goals within his reach, simultaneously letting the child know that he will have to postpone the achievement of some of his goals, else he will feel dissatisfied and frustrated. The child should be given to understand that all people have limitations and that accepting them does not mean that they have failed. Only by learning to accept his own limitations and those of his environment will the child be able to adjust adequately. When a child becomes aware of his limitations, he can better adapt himself to his own problems and to the limitations of others. The counselor can also help the teacher understand what kind of pressures each child can stand and from which he can profit most. This is essential because in general a person's ability to adjust depends upon how able he is to endure frustrations. Each person has a certain level of frustration which by and large is determined by his experiences in his home. When an easily frustrated child is put under too much pressure in the classroom, he will react in a negative way—in contrast to the pupil with a high frustration level who will gain by being challenged.

INFLUENCE OF THE HOME ENVIRONMENT. Mental maladjustment and delinquent behavior is the consequence of what an individual feels and sometimes thinks and the way he acts because of his personality makeup. He individuality is molded through his several environments, of which the most important is the home. What basically stimulates us in our life are the experiences we have in our infancy and childhood—in our family and in our community. No one is born bad or maladjusted—he gets that way when put in touch with his environments. It is not enough to respect the child as an individual, but we must know him as a person and understand him in terms of himself and in the ties he knits with his family, community, and society.

Early emotional attachments to mother, father, and siblings provide the basis for later relations with peers, teachers, principals, and other authority figures. When early family attachments have gone smoothly and have provided security for the young child, he has a good start toward making social adjustments outside the home. When he has not been so secure, serious problems may arise. You may have children who become overly dependent upon teachers for love and approval, or cling to the mother, or to another child.

Some parental attitudes have a destructive influence on the child and

sometimes tear down what the school tries to do. Although teachers cannot hope to change deep-seated attitudes and the personality structure of the parents, they can aid in the identification of parents who need the help of social workers or psychotherapists. The old idea that the home is where you live and the school is where you learn must give way to the building of a kinship between parents and teachers who are jointly charged with the education and well-being of children.

It takes both the home and the school to insure a well-balanced personality. Guidance personnel are needed as specialists to serve in the capacity of consultants to teachers and parents. Counselors can help teachers help parents change their faulty attitudes and provide a favorable environment of attitudes which will help the child achieve a sense of well-being and happiness.

Inadequacy of Present Services to Pupils

Many elementary schools today fail to meet the needs of their pupils. Recently a panel of six high school students in New York City, discussing the subject "Is Today's Education Meeting the Needs of Youth?" generally agreed that the principal deficiency was the lack of guidance services at crucial points in the lives of boys and girls. The failure of the public schools to provide the necessary services in the form of non-teaching specialists is in part directly responsible for the staggeringly large numbers of seriously maladjusted children. A vast number of the twenty-six million children attending elementary schools receive an educational diet below the subsistence level. Children at both extremes of the normal intelligence distribution go unidentified and therefore are neglected. These are usually referred to as "exceptional children."

GIFTED CHILDREN. Specialists tell us that one-half of our gifted children are not recognized as gifted by parents and teachers.[15] In general, these are children whose IQ's are above 125, and who achieve 18 months beyond grade level placements, and who display exceptional talents in music, art, mechanics, *et cetera*. Even among the gifted whose abilities are recognized, less than three-quarters develop their abilities to the fullest extent. The mental health of the gifted needs to be guarded, especially in the elementary school. It is during the period from 6 to 12 that they face their most difficult problems of personal-social adjustment. Gifted children often suffer at the hands of parental pressure or indifference. Even though gifted children have better than average ability for under-

standing and solving their own problems, they often need the special help which adults can provide through counseling. The studies made by Terman point out that the exceptionally bright child who is kept with his age group finds little to challenge his intelligence and all too often develops habits of laziness that later wreck his college career. Terman stresses the fact that we need to adopt educational methods which will challenge the gifted, and that this can be done only through early identification, using the appropriate tests and careful observation.[19]

Guidance personnel are needed (1) to aid in the early identification of talented boys and girls, (2) to assist the teacher in providing for their needs, (3) to help parents understand their gifted children and thereby alleviate their problems, should they become emotionally disturbed.

INTELLECTUALLY HANDICAPPED. Another vast group of children at the other extreme of the normal intelligence distribution are tragically neglected in our educational scheme. These are the intellectually handicapped. There are some 700,000 children now enrolled in our schools who are so limited mentally that they are considered mentally retarded.[4] These children have IQ's roughly between 35 and 75 or 80. It is estimated that only fifteen per cent of this group are identified and enrolled in special classes or centers where they can receive the special help they need.[4] These handicapped children should be identified early in the elementary school so that subject matter and teaching methods can be adjusted to their learning abilities. Failure to discover these children at this early age level results in increasing numbers of school failures, truants, emotional and behavior problems, and delinquents in the junior and senior high schools.

Educators are faced with increasingly large numbers of *slow learners*. Roughly, these pupils have IQ's ranging from 75 or 80 to 89, and by the time they enter seventh grade are at least three years retarded in achievement. Although these pupils cannot be expected to make much progress academically, they are still forced in some schools to sit in classes from which they can get little. The slow learner can, however, master the civic, special, and vocational skills he needs for a personally productive life. Counselors should be available to help identify slow learners. It is essential to make sure that the pupil's poor academic progress is due to limited learning ability rather than to an emotional disturbance, poor health, or some other problem which could be overcome by remedial instruction or treatment.

EDUCATIONALLY RETARDED. The educationally retarded are also neg-

lected. These are children who are 18 months below chronological age level in academic achievement. The vast majority of them have reading difficulties which become seriously handicapping when the child enters junior high school where reading and the language arts skills are indispensable tools for adequate learning. It has been estimated that by the sixth grade only about 70 per cent of school children have learned to read even moderately well. A junior high school counselor stated the problem that worries elementary teachers and counselors most: "Practically every youngster who walks into my office with an educational problem has trouble with reading." [12] Guidance counselors are needed (1) to assist teachers in interpreting survey reading tests, (2) to work with difficult reading cases that involve physical, mental and emotional problems, (3) to help prepare referrals of the more difficult cases to reading specialists, psychologists, physicians, or psychiatric clinics.

DROP-OUTS. The high school drop-out is considered by many to be one of the nation's most serious school problems. It is estimated that 650,000 children dropped out of junior and senior high schools in the 1953 academic year.[10] Although one out of four drop-outs leave school in the 9th grade, it is a continuing problem in the 10th, 11th, and 12th grades. Most drop-outs can be traced back to the elementary school where these pupils did not make the proper adjustment. Their adjustment problems stemmed from many factors, including non-recognition of "problem pupils," overcrowded classrooms, lack of identification of the intellectually handicapped, failure to adjust the curriculum to "slow learners," *et cetera*. [13] As these pupils progress through school without their basic needs being met, their deficiencies become more pronounced. The end result is usually their being unable to adjust educationally-emotionally-socially to the junior high school. Their deficiencies cause feelings of inadequacy which lead them to drop out of school, and in some cases even to become delinquent. Attack upon this problem calls for early identification of potential drop-outs and broadening of the offerings of the school.

FAILURE TO IDENTIFY SYMPTOMS. Many classroom teachers today fail to do an efficient job of identifying behavior which is symptomatic of adjustment problems. Kaplan found that teachers are more apt to react to behavior that is annoying than to behavior that might be symptomatic of serious adjustment problems.[17] One of the services which the personnel worker can render is to impart to teachers the principles of mental hygiene and indicate their application to children in their classes. Coun-

selors can help teachers ferret out the root causes of emotional, learning, and undesirable behavior problems. They can use tools which aid them in bringing to light the obscure factors that are responsible and help them in detecting the contributing causes that aggravate behavior problems.

These facts point up the crying need for more guidance facilities in the elementary school where the emphasis can be placed on the prevention of mental-emotional maladjustment. Not only their number, but their diversity, make it impossible for one teacher or single group of teachers to meet all the pupil needs we have been discussing. To effectively offer services aimed at alleviation of these needs, many nonteaching school and community resources must be called upon. Unquestionably good teaching is the heart of elementary guidance, but it takes more than individual good teaching to do a complete job of assisting children to make an adequate transition from home to school, and to society⁷ in general.

Teachers Desire Specialized Help

Our ideas of what a classroom teacher can accomplish in the modern school are not based upon reality. In the past the teacher within her classroom was expected to assume the entire responsibility for the growth and development of the child's personality in all its phases. It is true that our best teachers fulfill their major function which is to teach and act as the integrating force that brings into play factors necessary for the child's physical-social-emotional-moral growth. It is self-evident, however, that the very immensity of the assignment makes it impossible to complete. Although the ability of the teacher to perform her duty is not questioned, the classroom teacher cannot do her job without assistance.

In our increasingly complicated world teachers have neither the time, the training, the resources, nor the experience to incorporate into their teaching the entire body of truths we know about mental hygiene and child development. It is not possible for the teacher to provide the kind of individual help the guidance counselor can give the child who so urgently needs it. The teacher needs and almost daily seeks the assistance of the guidance specialist. Thus the guidance counselor is essential to function as the medium through which the guidance and mental hygiene points of view are kept constantly a part of the atmosphere of the school. In addition, the trained guidance counselor should be available as a consultant and as a worker who can perform the intensive and more special-

ized guidance tasks. It is imperative that we note here that another group of persons is essential if education is to meet its objective of fostering the optimal adjustment of each child. These specialists are the nurse, doctor, social worker, psychologist, and psychiatrist who make their specialities available when they are needed. In a well-rounded guidance program, then, teachers, guidance specialists, and clinical specialists have a specific part to play in the growth and development of every child.

Summary

This presentation has spelled out the need for the provision of guidance services for elementary school children. The specific needs discussed grew out of the following general trends in our society today: (1) forces in a dynamic, modern society, such as the rapid pace of living, mobility of the population, changes in family and home life, and conflicting social values; (2) the rapidly accelerating trend toward maladjustment noted in the greater extent of emotional maladjustment and the rise of juvenile delinquency; (3) mounting enrollments in the elementary school; (4) inadequate application of the knowledge of psychological and medical specialists; (5) inadequacy of present services to pupils; and (6) teachers' desire for specialized help.

The feeling reflected here is the fact that the entire elementary educational program will benefit immeasurably by the provision for specialists to coordinate and carry out a program of guidance services.

REFERENCES

1. The National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, *A National Study of Existing and Recommended Practices for Assisting Youth Adjustment in Selected Elementary Schools of the United States* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: Ann Arbor Publishers, 1933).
2. David Abrahamsen, *Who Are the Guilty? A Study of Education and Crime* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1952).
3. "Are the Schools Meeting the Child's Needs?" *The University of Chicago Round Table*, No. 766 (November 30, 1959).
4. "Education in Review," *New York Times* (February 28, 1954).
5. "Education in Review," *New York Times* (September 1954).
6. Martha M. Eliot, "There Are Also Juvenile Non-Delinquents," *New York Times Magazine* (November 7, 1954).
7. K.G. Garrison and B.W. Cunningham, "Personal Problems in Ninth Grade Pupils," *School Review*, 60 (January 1952), 80.
8. Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, *Unravelling Juvenile Delinquency* (The Commonwealth Fund, 1950).

9. *Guidance for Today's Children*, 33rd Yearbook of *The National Elementary School Principal*, 24, 1 (September 1954).
10. *Guidance Newsletter* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, October 1953).
11. Arthur J. Jones and Leonard M. Miller, "The National Picture of Pupil Personnel and Guidance Services," *The Bulletin*, 38, 200 (The National Association of Secondary School Principals of the N.E.A., February 1954).
12. *Junior Guidance Newsletter* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, November 1951).
13. *Junior Guidance Newsletter* (Science Research Associates, February 1952).
14. *Junior Guidance Newsletter* (Science Research Associates, February 1953).
15. *Junior Guidance Newsletter* (Science Research Associates, May 1952).
16. Leo Kanner, *Child Psychiatry*, 2nd ed. (Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1948).
17. Lois Kaplan, "The Annoyances of Elementary School Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research* (May 1952), p. 649.
18. Frank Sievers, *Principles and Practices in Elementary School Guidance* (unpublished doctorate thesis, Teachers College, University of Nebraska, 1954).
19. Lewis M. Terman, *Genetic Studies of Genius IV—The Gifted Child Grows Up* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1947).

200
6038
6138

Guidance

HAROLD F. COTTINGHAM



Anyone active in educational work at the elementary-school level can hardly read a journal, textbook or professional publication without being aware of the current emphasis on guidance functions in the elementary school. This trend is indeed of recent origin: much of the material has appeared within the past five years, and even older references do not carry a dateline much prior to 1948.

Let us look at the reasons for the relatively recent emergence of guidance activities at the elementary level. Then let us classify some of the early literature, especially as to the approach recommended for elementary guidance. Finally, we will outline several areas of emphasis or agreement now characterizing guidance for elementary pupils.

In considering the recent emphasis on guidance in the elementary school, we need first to look at the history of the development. Guidance services were first provided for out-of-school youth (in Boston in 1908). Later, such services were extended to secondary-school pupils, and now we are developing a guidance program for elementary-school children.

One factor which has spurred the extension of guidance for grade-schoolers has been the developing awareness that guidance activities need not be reserved exclusively for specialists but may be shared by teachers as well. (This development has come as a direct result of the increased support of the view that classroom teachers play a key role in studying and in changing child behavior.)

Finally, even further extension has taken place because of acceptance of the view that guidance services should be available to *all* pupils, not just to those with reading problems or other difficulties. Obviously, if all students are to be helped, we need to have many professional people in-

volved, and at various training levels. Thus it becomes not only advisable, but also necessary, for teachers to assume some of these guidance responsibilities.

Society and Guidance

Over the past twenty years, greater concern has been shown for meeting the emotional, as well as the intellectual, needs of children. Such evidence as failures, drop-outs, increasing numbers of maladjustments and referrals to psychological clinics has shown the validity of these allegations. Within the past few years much interest has also been aroused in the general question of manpower utilization, with particular reference to pupils who could succeed in scientific careers. These attitudes have been accentuated by an interest in the early location of general and specialized talent, as well as the identification of children who may become problems at upper-grade levels. With greater expenditures devoted to pupil personnel services, the public is demanding greater emphasis on the preventive aspects of guidance.

When we examine the different approaches by various authors to guidance in the elementary school, we find at least six somewhat distinct conceptualizations. Some of the earlier texts in the field (Hatch [1] and Bernard, Zeran and Evan[2]) proposed that guidance functions in the elementary school be patterned after the services commonly accepted for the secondary school. A second conceptual position, now somewhat passé, is that elementary guidance is almost synonymous with "good teaching" (Willey[3]). A modification of this idea is stressed in a recent book by Barr [4] who sees the teacher, aided by parents, specialists and administrators, as carrying "the largest share of guidance services." Still another basis is the mental health or problem-centered one, as expounded by Detjen and Detjen.[5]

Another attack on the problem (Driscoll[6] and Cutts[7]) might be called the school psychologist and specialist approach, implying that much of the guidance in the elementary school should be provided by school or child psychologists, supplemented by specialists such as visiting teachers or social welfare personnel. The application of human development principles through child study methods constitutes yet another concept of elementary-school guidance. The writings of Gordon[8], Prescott[9], and Los Angeles County[10] reflect this position.

One feature inherent in several of the views listed above is their stress upon roles of personnel or assumed services, rather than on *locally designed* functions to help the child become effective in his school and home environment. Some people consider as more practical this approach of coordinated effort, where guidance consists of organizing various resources within and beyond instruction (emphasized by Martinson and Smullenburg[11], ASCD Yearbook[12], Cottingham[13] and Strang[14]). Naturally, even these sources have differences in viewpoint, in spite of the common element mentioned above.

Guidance Principles

A casual overview of the leading publications which offer a description of the nature of guidance in the elementary school indicates several characteristics upon which a number of these writers agree. The presence of certain common concepts possibly indicates a trend toward accepting a basic set of beliefs which set forth the unique features of elementary-school guidance functions. A few of the more obvious principles which describe guidance work at this level are:

1. Guidance functions consist of a total, coordinated plan of services to pupils, parents and teachers.
2. Guidance is provided by teachers as well as special personnel, both within and beyond the curriculum.
3. While the classroom teacher is the center of guidance activity, additional personnel workers are often necessary to meet all needs.
4. The problem areas presented by children at the elementary-school level emphasize an understanding and acceptance of the self, a satisfactory relation with social groups, and successful experiences in the academic phase of the school program.
5. The activities underlying the teacher's and specialist's guidance role involve procedures to know and understand children, as well as ways of assisting them with personal and social problems.
6. The needs of children in general, and the local school enrollment in particular, should determine the types of services comprising an adequate pattern of guidance in an elementary school. Because of the diversity of pupil needs within a school, many approaches involving both individual and group contacts are necessary.
7. The teacher has a dual role, not only in providing methods and ma-

terials of instruction in basic skills demanded by society, but in providing appropriate procedures to help children with personal and social difficulties which stem from psychological needs.

8. Effective elementary-school guidance is contingent upon the knowledge, skill and professional attitude of mentally healthy teachers, specialists and administrators. An indispensable characteristic of a well-qualified guidance person (teacher or counselor) is a recognizable respect for the integrity of each individual child.

REFERENCES

1. Raymond N. Hatch, *Guidance Services in the Elementary School* (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co.).
2. Harold Bernard, Franklin Zeran, and James E. Evan, *Guidance Services in Elementary Schools* (New York: Chartwell House, Inc., 1954).
3. Roy D. Willey, *Guidance in Elementary Education* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952).
4. John A. Barr, *The Elementary Teacher and Guidance* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1958).
5. Mary F. and Ervin W. Detjen, *Elementary School Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1952).
6. Gertrude P. Driscoll, *Child Guidance in the Classroom* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955).
7. Norman E. Cutts (ed.), *School Psychologists at Mid-Century* (Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association, 1955).
8. Ira Gordon, *The Teacher as Guidance Worker* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956).
9. Daniel A. Prescott, *The Child in the Educative Process* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957).
10. *Guidance Handbook for Elementary Schools* (Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, Division of Research and Guidance, Los Angeles County Schools, 1948).
11. Ruth Martinson and Harry W. Smallenburg, *Guidance in Elementary Schools* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1958).
12. *Guidance in the Curriculum*, 1955 Yearbook, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Washington, D.C.: NEA).
13. Harold F. Cottingham, *Guidance in Elementary Schools* (Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight, 1956).
14. Ruth Strang, "Guidance in the Elementary School," *Guidance for Today's Children*, Thirty-third Yearbook, Bulletin of Department of Elementary School Principals (Washington, D.C.: NEA, 1954).
15. Dugald Arbuckle, *Guidance and Counseling in the Classroom* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1957).

☞ Developing an Understanding of Human Behavior at the Elementary School Level *

FRANCES SMYTHE STILES

Human behavior may be approached in two ways. On the one hand, it may be viewed in its overt form and the form described as it appears. On the other hand, the behavior may be discussed in terms of the factors that produced it—the motives and other factors that were its immediate and remote antecedents.

For example, let us consider an aggressive child. His behavior can be described in terms of what he does, when he does it and what society's attitude is toward this behavior, or it can be discussed in terms of the factors or conditions that led up to behavior. For convenience, the first approach may be called non-analytical and the second, analytical.

The two approaches may lead to significant differences in the ways in which others would react to the behavior and the methods they would use in attempting to change it. In the non-analytical approach a label may be attached to the behavior and some arbitrary method of dealing with it may be adopted. The child may be censured, expelled from school, deprived of several recesses, or perhaps ostracized by the other children. The analytical approach, on the other hand, takes into consideration possible motivational forces that are operative.

* We need to know more about why children behave as they do. The author of this [article] presents data on the results achieved from a program designed to modify social behavior. [The] article is based on a doctoral dissertation which was completed in August 1947, under the direction of Dr. Ralph Ojemann. The dissertation is on file at the State University of Iowa under the title of *A Study of Materials and Programs for Developing an Understanding of Behavior at the Elementary School Level*.

REPRINTED FROM *JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH*, 43, 7 (MARCH 1950), 516-524, BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR.

The application of an analytical approach may be illustrated by amplifying the example of the aggressive child. Suppose this child bullies others, picks on children younger and weaker than himself, takes things away from them or threatens them. Suppose, in addition, he continually brags about himself. What may have produced this behavior? One possible cause may be that he may have been frequently frustrated in his attempts to build up status. Perhaps there is an older sibling in the family whose attainments are impossible for this child, yet these attainments are accepted as rigid standards by his parents and he experiences frequent failure in his endeavor to live up to them. One's reactions to this behavior would take into account the frustrations the child is experiencing.

It should be emphasized here that there are many possible causes for any given form of behavior. If behavior is to be understood the characteristics of the situation as well as the characteristics of the child who reacts in this situation must be considered. Also, behavior patterns may vary widely in complexity. It is well known that some patterns are far too complex to be understood and reorganized by the lay individual by means of methods within his ability to learn. However, some everyday behavior patterns do lend themselves to analysis by an individual who has acquired such techniques as will enable him better to understand himself and others. It is with these patterns that this study is concerned.

The question now arises: How is one to acquire an understanding of some of the basic principles underlying behavior and its development so that he can begin to look at the behavior he meets in everyday situations in terms of the causes and what would be the effects of such an extension of insight?

There are numerous sources from which an individual may acquire some degree of understanding of the analytical approach to behavior if appropriate experiences were provided. Such sources may be the home, the church, the school, neighborhood play groups, and such media as the radio, motion pictures, lectures, books and periodicals.

Since the school is an important source of experiences, it provides an excellent situation for studying the effects of a carefully designed learning program in developing an understanding of the analytical approach to behavior.

There is some evidence that insight into human behavior and its development can be extended through planned programs at the youth level and that such experiences change the behavior of the young person toward others.[1, 2, 3]

The questions which now arise are these: Can similar experiences be designed for the elementary school level and, if so, how effective would such experiences be? If an understanding and appreciation of behavior are valuable to an individual, it seems reasonable to suppose that the earlier these concepts are acquired, the better. The present study was planned to observe the changes in the social behavior of elementary school children as a result of a learning program especially designed for them. In conducting the study the following procedures were followed: (1) designing a learning program for the intermediate grades, (2) presenting it to the pupils, (3) measuring for its effectiveness.

Procedure

DESIGN OF THE LEARNING PROGRAM

Five patterns of behavior which were common to the experiences of the children, which were of interest to them and which were of a nature that lent themselves to a rather simple analysis of possible causes were selected. These behavior patterns were chosen on the basis of observations of elementary school children, conferences with experienced elementary school teachers and principals and selected readings in the field of mental hygiene.

A pupil's manual and a teacher's manual were prepared by the investigator. The pupil's manual contained an introduction to the pupil, three stories and a summary. The teacher's manual contained, in addition to the materials of the pupil's manual, an introduction to the teacher, discussion guides for the stories and additional discussion guides giving rather detailed analyses of related behavior patterns.

The five behavior patterns introduced by three stories and discussion guides were as follows: (1) behavior toward school playground rules; (2) teasing or bullying (one or the other presented for discussion), (3) trespassing; (4) behavior toward property; and (5) audience behavior.

In the preparation of these materials the investigator kept in mind two main understandings which were to be stressed: the same behavior may have many causes; and it is helpful to discover the causes in order to understand or to change behavior. The term "cause" as used in this discussion means a factor or a condition which led up to the behavior described.

Selected readings in the field of mental hygiene suggested factors or

conditions which were utilized in developing the stories and discussions guides contained in the manuals. Some of the factors and conditions which recurred throughout the learning program were: (1) the operation of such motives as the desire for physical activity following a period of "sitting still," the desire for new experiences, the desire to belong to a group, the desire to do something worth-while, and the desire to avoid situations which may lead to feelings of insecurity; (2) the attempt to overcome a feeling of frustration when such motives as the above are blocked; and (3) the lack of sufficient understanding, knowledge or skill.

PRESENTATION OF THE LEARNING PROGRAM

The learning program was presented to 172 children in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades of a consolidated school in a small town and farming community in Iowa. For these children the mean chronological age was ten years, seven months; the mean IQ (Otis) was 103.8. The program was administered through one-hour discussion periods on six consecutive school days. During the first five discussion periods the teacher and the children analyzed behavior patterns which were introduced through stories and discussion guides contained in the manuals. The last or sixth day of class discussion in each grade was taken over by the investigator. At this meeting a sample problem drawn from the group was analyzed and the ideas developed in the preceding discussions were applied.

METHOD OF MEASUREMENT

The effects of the learning program were measured by the degree to which the child demonstrated an analytical approach to the behavior problems which confronted him for solution in the room council situation. In the room council meetings held in this school, problems affecting the children were introduced for discussion. They were discussed by the children with a child as leader and the teacher as just another participant, and procedures were selected by vote. The vote was more than something theoretical to the child. It was something that actually was carried out, and the child knew that similar decisions might be applied to himself as well as to others.

When a motion concerning a plan for dealing with behavior was brought to a vote the investigator would request a written ballot. Each child was asked to write his ballot number to assure a secret vote. The investigator felt that a child would express himself more freely if his ballot

could not be identified by the other children. Along with his ballot number the child wrote his vote which usually was expressed either in terms of "yes" or "no" or by a letter ("A," "B," "C," etc.) which designated his preference for one of the possible methods that had evolved in the discussion for changing behavior. The child then was asked to turn the ballot over and write why he thought the way he voted was a good way.

The statements written on the ballot were scored on a seven-point scale as to the extent to which consideration had been given in the child's vote to the underlying factors producing the behavior in question. These statements were interpreted in light of the way in which the child voted and the manner in which the problem was brought up and discussed in the council meetings.

Ballots were scored for the four weekly council meetings before the learning program and for the four weekly council meetings after the learning program. Three points on the scale used in scoring the ballots are described below.

SCORE

CLASSIFICATION

- 1 This score was assigned when the decision made showed no consideration of the factors producing the behavior. For example, if the subjects voted for some form of deprivation of fun, hostile criticism, appeal to precedent, or some arbitrary form of punishment without any recognition of the factors underlying behavior, a score of "1" was given.

Examples: "Vote for staying in three recesses because they will miss the fun"; "vote for staying after school because it serves them right."

- 4 If the subject recognized some relation, explicitly stated, between the causes of the behavior but made only a very partial analysis he was given a score of "4."

Examples: "Vote for giving him another chance this week because it will help him improve more"; "vote for having the teacher talk to him because that may help him to remember."

- 7 The ballot statement received a score of "7" if it demonstrated that the subject recognized the probable cause or causes of the behavior which was brought up for discussion in the council meeting and if the subject by his vote and statement showed an attempt to change behavior by changing the underlying factor or factors producing it.

Example: "Vote for having the best ball players teach those boys (who lack skill) how to play so they will help us have a better team instead of annoying us to get attention."

The above illustrations show the extremes and mid-point of the scale. A score of "2" or "3" was given if there was an implication of a beginning

recognition of the relation of the method of changing behavior to the causes but only an implication. A score of "5" or "6" was given if there was a rather clear recognition of the relation of the method of changing behavior to the causes but the causes named were not extensive.

Reliability of the scale was determined by per cent agreement between two observers who scored independently two hundred ballots. There was 85 per cent complete agreement.

Results and Conclusions

An analysis of changes in behavior as evidenced by the ballot scores was made.

Table 1 gives the results and significance of differences on the mean ballot scores for the experimental subjects. In all cases these differences are statistically significant beyond the 1 per cent level of confidence. The mean ballot score for each subject was obtained by averaging the ballot scores from four council meetings prior to and the scores from the four meetings following the learning program. The data show significant gains for all groups.

Results of Test of Significance of Differences on Ballot Scores for Experimental Subjects

Grade	N*	Mean Initial Score	Mean Final Score	Mean Gain	"t"	Level of Significance
IV ¹	23	1.41	2.98	1.57	8.81	Beyond 1%
IV ²	19	1.56	2.72	1.16	6.61	Beyond 1%
V ¹	34	1.68	3.26	1.58	17.07	Beyond 1%
V ²	33	1.41	2.25	.84	7.90	Beyond 1%
VI ¹	29	2.22	2.87	.65	4.22	Beyond 1%
VI ²	30	1.61	2.32	.71	9.11	Beyond 1%

* Complete scores available for only 168 subjects.

Some evidence that gains are not the result of sheer practice in council sessions is furnished by ballot scores obtained from fifth grade subjects in the University Elementary School. The mean ballot scores for nineteen fifth grade pupils for each of six consecutive meetings without an intervening learning program are as follows:

		Council Meetings					
Grade	N	1	2	3	4	5	6
V	19	1.21	1.63	1.55	1.42	1.37	1.32

Practice effects alone, therefore, do not seem to account for the gains given in Table 1.

Although the gains are not large, they are significant and indicate that a learning program such as the one introduced in this study has made a small beginning in helping the children to develop a more analytical approach to problems of human behavior which confront them.

Before accepting this finding, however, and to aid us in interpreting the data more adequately we may ask a number of questions:

1. Are the changes due to the ability of the children to express themselves on paper?

Since such a possibility was recognized by the investigator she took precautions to keep this factor at a minimum. During the balloting procedure the children were assured that no premium was to be placed on spelling or writing but rather that the investigator was interested solely in why they thought what they voted for was a good choice.

As a further answer to this question semester grades in language were selected as the best available measure of the child's ability to express himself, and correlations were obtained between language grades and ballot score changes. Since teacher grades are not considered very satisfactory the unreliability of such measures must be taken into account in interpreting the correlations. The actual calculation of the correlations was done from raw scores; however, scatter diagrams were made of each distribution and in each case the spread of scores seemed reasonably satisfactory. The correlations between ballot score changes and the semester language grades range from $-.25$ to $+.33$ which indicate little or no relationship.

2. Are the changes due to the reading ability of the children?

When the reading materials were being prepared the investigator attempted to simplify them so that they would be within the reading comprehension of the children. As a first measure, the investigator asked each of three children to read orally two pages picked at random from the pupil's manual. These children who scored at the average third grade level on the Iowa Every Pupil Reading Test encountered little difficulty in reading and in understanding the sections of the stories which the investigator asked them to read.

As a second measure, the investigator subjected the materials to two formulæ which have been used to ascertain the reading level of elementary school reading materials. The two methods do not agree, but

with one exception the readings tend to show a difficulty at or below the fourth grade level.

In addition to these tests, the investigator throughout the writing of the stories kept in mind elements which studies have shown tend to affect comprehension difficulty of children's reading materials.

Correlations were obtained between ballot score changes and the reading scores of the subjects. The reading scores are the total reading scores received on the Iowa Every Pupil Reading Test which was given to the experimental subjects. These scores indicate a measure of both vocabulary and reading comprehension. Here again the correlations are near zero with one exception. The correlation for Grade IV² is $+.47$ ($N=17$). For the group as a whole, however, the correlations are not significant.

3. How are the changes related to sex differences?

The mean gain on ballot scores for each sex shows very little difference:

<i>Sex</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean Gain</i>
M	72	.97
F	99	1.12

4. Are the changes related to differences in the intelligence of the children?

There is very little relationship between ballot score changes and intelligence (Otis). One exception appears in Grade IV² where the figure is $+.64$. There is perhaps a slight tendency for a positive correlation but the figures are not too consistent from grade to grade. Apparently the learning program did not unduly favor the high or low in intelligence.

The above findings tend to indicate that the changes in ballot scores cannot be accounted for on the basis of practice in using ballots as employed in this study, nor does it seem that the changes are related to verbal facility or intelligence as measured by the tests used. The evidence points consistently in the direction of a significant change in the actual approach to the behavior of others.

This finding has a two-fold significance. Changes in the child's approach to the behavior and in his understanding of that behavior can be made on the elementary school level provided appropriate influences are brought to bear. If it is desirable to develop in children an understanding of the behavior of others and the ability to approach behavior in an analytical way, a contribution can be made through elementary school experiences.

The second implication relates to the study of the child's development in his behavior toward others. Whenever one tries to explain the child's growth in behavior toward others it is necessary to take into account the fact that this growth depends in part upon whether the child has had an opportunity to extend his insight through experiences designed along the lines indicated in this study.

It cannot be concluded from this study that the particular experiences incorporated in the learning program are the most efficient experiences we can devise. One can think of numerous changes and extensions that could be made in the program. Only a limited number of patterns of behavior were included. Many more and different types could be tested.

* Also, the subject's behavior when he considers the problem in council sessions is only one test of change in behavior. Many more tests could be made. For example, in one of the grades in which the trial program was carried out there appeared some weeks later the problem of pupil behavior during classroom discussion of a natural science topic. The teacher stopped the class discussion and asked whether the pupils who were creating the disturbance should be put out in the hall. One of the pupils suggested that from the discussions about behavior they had had several weeks ago it seemed they should first ask the question as to why the children were creating the disturbance—whether it was because the discussions did not have any meaning or value to them. More investigation is needed to determine how extensive such reactions following the learning program are and under what conditions they appear.

Finally, studies can be made of the types of pupils who show gains and those who do not. What causes the differences? Such studies could throw much light on the dynamics of changing behavior.

This study has taken only the first step to show that some changes can be made in this area of the child's development.

REFERENCES

1. Bessie McNiel, "Development at the Youth Level of a Conception of the Cause of Behavior and the Effectiveness of a Learning Program in This Area," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 13 (December 1944), 81-85.
2. Ralph Ojemann, Anne Nugent, and Mildred Morgan, "Study of Human Behavior in the Social Science Program," *Social Education*, 11 (January 1947), 25-28.
3. Ralph Ojemann and Mildred Morgan, "The Effect of a Learning Program Designed to Assist Youth in an Understanding of Behavior and Its Development," *Child Development*, 13 (September 1942), 181-194.

Guidance: A Longitudinal and a Differential View

GAIL F. FARWELL

HERMAN J. PETERS

A comprehensive guidance program starts with the child's entry into the school setting. The guidance program is for *all* boys and girls at *all* school levels. If the basic concept emphasizes a sensitivity to prevention rather than a resort to correction and cure, then our guidance point of view, which has as its basic tenet the assisting of boys and girls toward optimum psychological, sociological, and physical maturity, must be put into operation early in the school life of boys and girls.

What kind of a person do we want to entrust with the responsibilities implied above? What is this guidance worker to be like?

First a person of character who can sustain the demands of intimate inter-personal relationships and who by virtue of his own maturity can enrich these relationships. Guidance is no mechanical process. Inadequate people can go through the motions but the young person gains little, if indeed he is not harmed. Behind the various procedures and techniques useful in guidance programs must be a substantial person, warm, open, knowing of the feelings of others, deeply respectful of the rights of others. It is very likely that the young person (and all of us) can work out significant changes in personality only in a close and meaningful relationship with another person.

Second a person of broad experience seriously reflected upon. The person should have had enough experience to know that his own experiences, rich as they are, cannot provide adequate patterns for another

REPRINTED FROM *THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL*, 57, 8 (MAY 1957), 26-31, BY
PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHORS.

person. We need guidance workers who know people well and know the world in which they live.

Third a person who is bright, intelligent. A person of average intellectual ability will simply not be able to help those youngsters of great creative potential who will be our leaders of tomorrow.

Finally a person who is technically competent. This is the relatively simple side of the matter. Given a person with the qualities noted above, it is easy to train him to be a good counselor, a good diagnostician, a good planner of programs, a good guidance worker.

We should recognize that the guidance process is somewhat different at the elementary-school level than it is at the junior and senior high school levels. The point of view expressed above emphasizes "helping boys and girls toward maturity," and we must recognize at what maturity level each pupil has arrived if our guidance procedures are to function effectively. In moving toward maturity, we need to provide bases for making decisions and to provide yardsticks against which the individual can appraise his own development. The classroom teacher, sensitized to the guidance point of view and capable of empathic relationships with boys and girls, has a most important role in the elementary-school phase of the guidance program. The school counselor or a guidance committee, headed by a person at least semi-skilled in guidance procedures, should co-ordinate the activities at this level.

The extent of the capacity for insightful introspection is questionable in the case of young children, but we need to keep this process in mind and, as the boys and girls move along in our school system, encourage this activity as soon as the maturity level will justify the action.

Guidance Throughout School Years

If one considers a guidance program on a longitudinal basis, a firm foundation for understanding the uniqueness of each boy and girl in our schools must begin at the kindergarten level. It is folly to permit our children and youth to proceed toward maturity without a record of their ongoing psychological, sociological, mental, and physical development. To this end a program of guidance services is dedicated.

The services approach to the guidance program—inventory service, information service, counseling service, placement service, and follow-up service—can be viewed as having implications across the entire school system, but certain phases of these services are much more applicable at

some levels than at others. In the elementary school the guidance program is most concerned with pupil inventory; with the provision of appropriately graded information about schooling, social-personal relationships, and the world of work; and with orientation and with grade and subject-area placement of the pupil. It is imperative that the service aspect of the guidance program be co-ordinated. Otherwise, incidentalism prevails, and the major crime of incidental guidance is not what it does but what it leaves undone. Also, incidentalism breeds much overlap in function and accomplishment.

As we move into the later stages of the elementary school and the junior high school, the need for counseling service and placement service becomes greater. Also in the junior high school some follow-up studies of the effectiveness of the guidance program of the elementary school are in order. At this stage of maturity the pupils evidence much greater sensitivity to peer and adult relationships, and the guidance workers should begin placing emphasis on boys' and girls' understanding of "the self" and also the implications for interrelationships with "other selves." In the junior and senior high school, extensive emphasis should be placed on the role of educational, occupational, and social-personal information in providing boys and girls with a background for making intelligent choices about future schooling and careers and for establishing satisfactory human relations.

In the junior and senior high school, the group approach to ascertaining, providing, and interpreting information about "self" and about the impinging environmental influences should be supplemented and complemented by individual counseling service. The right of each pupil to expect recognition of his unique individuality implies that time, staff, and budget must be provided for individual counseling service.

The senior high school youth become concerned about external placement—placement in part-time or full-time jobs and in institutions of advanced education (apprenticeship programs, non-degree programs, and college programs). Adolescents need adequate assistance in selection of, accomplishment in, and interpretation of, their career and educational programs. In the over-all placement service we include internal placement (which is concerned with grade and subject-area placement) and external placement (which is concerned with making a student's "next steps" realistic and meaningful).

The follow-up or research aspect of the guidance program has implications at all levels, for it is through research that evaluation of our

methods and the effectiveness of the program can be ascertained. This evidence should be the basis for making changes in the guidance program as well as for deciding on the worthiness of those operations we wish to maintain.

Differential Factors in Elementary-School Guidance

Guidance in the elementary school has a number of distinguishing hallmarks. Numerous articles on guidance in the elementary school have focused discussion on how guidance at this level is similar to guidance services at the secondary-school level. It may be worthwhile to consider how guidance in the elementary school differs from guidance in the secondary school. Emphasis on the factors unique to elementary-school guidance may assist elementary-school staff members to do a better job in their respective guidance roles.

One of the basic factors affecting guidance in the elementary school is related to child development. It is in the period of six to twelve years of age that the child brings together in integrated fashion the forces of the home, the school, the church, and peer relationships, which structure the foundation for his adolescent years. All these forces begin to blend into a harmonious whole. Adolescence seems to be more concerned with the differentiating aspects of the above-mentioned diverse factors rather than the integrative aspects, as during childhood.

The expressiveness of children reveals the harmony between their overt and covert motivation. Beginning with adolescence there may be more differentiation between outer behavior and inner feelings and thinking. Thus, through childhood there is a learning of controlled expressiveness—in a sense, a learned inhibitiveness within the demands of the cultural framework.

A third factor differentiating elementary-school guidance is that children cannot verbalize their feelings to the extent that the maturing adolescent is capable of doing. Because the reasoning process in children is not developed to its fullest, it, too, is a differential factor in an elementary-school pupil's being insightful into the cause and effect of his behavior. Two cautions in interpretation of the last statement are in order here: (1) The mere fact that the elementary-school boy or girl may not have reached the highest level in his reasoning powers does not

mean that his feelings are not as sensitive or impressionable as are the adolescent's. (2) The mere fact that the pupil is in the adolescent stage does not necessarily mean that his reasoning powers insure insightful self-understanding.

A fourth differential factor in the guidance of elementary-school children is related to the fact that children do not have a sense of immediacy in deciding on advanced education, making career decisions, and dealing with familial factors that affect their progress toward adulthood. Elementary-school children do have the immediate problems of learning basic skills, of socialization, and of relating to a reality world as contrasted to the fantasy world of early childhood. The elementary-school child is in need of guidance which will help him build a firm personality core from which he can develop the variations in living required in adolescence and adulthood.

The limits of choices of behavior by elementary-school boys and girls is a fifth differentiating factor in their guidance. The choices which children may make are more often than not within an adult framework of limitations, and in most cases the adult involved is the one in their current situation. The adolescent, on the other hand, may more often make decisions within societal limitations rather than within the limits set by the adults in his life space situation.

A sixth differential factor concerns the use of guidance services. Whereas the adolescent may use guidance services directly, the elementary-school child receives the benefits of guidance services through the school staff. The guidance services are more teacher-centered than pupil-centered in the elementary school. One example will illustrate. A tenth-grade student may discuss his aptitude-test results with a school counselor. In the elementary school the guidance-minded teacher will use the test results in developing a meaningful program of learning for the pupil; there probably will be no direct communication with the child concerning his record on a test.

A seventh differential factor is the difference in the organization of the elementary school from that of the secondary school. The elementary-school teacher has full guidance responsibility for his pupils. The high-school teacher has a definite guidance role to play, but it is usually so delineated as to include only one or two phases of the high-school student's total life situation. The high-school counselor becomes the unifying agent, as well as specialist, in assisting the adolescent to know, accept,

and direct himself. In the elementary school the classroom teacher functions as the school counselor.

☞ Concluding Comment

Guidance in the elementary school should assist the pupil to develop a harmonious and integrated personality core through carefully planned school experiences which reflect the integration of all the forces impinging on the individual. This is in contrast to guidance services in the secondary school, which assist adolescents to extend themselves to the optimum in all the various aspects of adolescent and adult living, such as educational planning, career choice, personal relationships, and living with one's self. In the elementary school the classroom teacher is *the* guidance worker. In the secondary school each classroom teacher must play a role in the guidance program, but it is the officially appointed, time-released, school counselor who correlates the guidance program for the teachers and unifies the assistance given boys and girls who need his help in greater or lesser amounts.

At both elementary- and secondary-school levels, the school, particularly the co-ordinating head of the guidance program (preferably a school counselor), needs to have a perspective of the over-all guidance program. The program needs to be placed on a longitudinal basis that avoids duplication; makes optimum use of the potentialities of all school staff members at their operational level in the system; and is designed, altered, and reinforced in its procedural approach to meet the needs of all boys and girls. The guidance point of view is a philosophy that must pervade the school system if the maximum potentiality of boys and girls is to be realized.

Guidance Services Recommended by Public- and Parochial-School Teachers

ANTHONY G. RICCIO
DONALD J. WEHMEYER

In a recent report, Leona E. Tyler indicates that there is a definite need to improve guidance services in private schools. Further, she notes the effort "to get private school counselors into the [National Defense Education Act] program has been almost completely unsuccessful." [1] Many persons believe that private-school personnel do not enroll in guidance and counseling training institutes because they do not receive the handsome stipends afforded public-school participants. Others think that the problem is more basic. They hold that guidance services are not as well received in private as in public schools, primarily because of the emphasis on traditional approaches to education in private schools. They see the issue as directly related to conflicting philosophies of education.

This paper reports a study designed to ascertain whether there are noticeable or significant differences in the guidance services recommended by public and private (parochial) elementary-school teachers for particular problem situations. By law neither public nor private elementary-school teachers are allowed to enroll in NDEA counseling and guidance training institutes and thus are ineligible to profit professionally or financially from external pressures to improve the quality of counseling and guidance services; it seemed desirable, therefore, to use elementary-school teachers to measure genuine attitudinal differences toward guidance services. The study incidentally yielded data pertinent to the future of guidance services at the elementary-school level.

REPRINTED FROM *EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN*, 40, 1 (JANUARY 1961), 12-18,
BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHORS.

Several attempts have been made to study the reactions of educational groups to the kind of guidance services that should be employed in particular problem situations. Lawrence H. Stewart administered Robinson's "What Should Be Done?" questionnaire to 94 counselors and 169 classroom teachers in the San Francisco Bay area to learn whether these groups had different conceptions of the guidance services most appropriate for particular problem situations. He found few outstanding differences in the recommendations of the two groups and noted that large numbers in both groups recommended actions which were "inadequate and often inappropriate." He suggested that his findings conceivably were related to the current practice of assigning teachers to counseling positions rather than persons qualified in the field.[2]

Mangan conducted a similar study using a sample of elementary- and secondary-school teachers in Ohio.[3] He administered the same questionnaire to 111 secondary-school teachers and an adaptation of it to an equal number of elementary-school teachers. Observing few differences between the guidance services recommended by the groups under study, he discerned a tendency for secondary-school teachers to suggest intensive guidance procedures for students with various kinds of academic difficulties.[3] The writers used this adaptation in the present study.¹ The questionnaire follows:

WHAT SHOULD BE DONE?

* Following are brief descriptions of pupils in the sixth grade of an elementary school. The members of the staff are discussing the relationship which their guidance program should have to each pupil. As a preliminary step they are placing each pupil in one of the following five categories. If you were there, what rating would you give each pupil? (Place a category number before each pupil.)

- 0 Probably no need for guidance program to work with this pupil.
- 1 Routine use made of conferences and activities with pupil and/or parents; nothing especially planned for pupil at this time.
- 2 Special plans made to fit this pupil's needs with particular emphasis placed or non-conference personnel methods, e.g., activities, change of grade, enrichment, etc.
- 3 Special plans made to fit this pupil's needs with particular emphasis placed on the school providing intensive counseling help or play therapy.
- 4 Refer the pupil to some agency outside of school for help.

¹ The writers make grateful acknowledgment for permission to use the questionnaire and other data appearing in Mr. Mangan's thesis.

-*Athlete* A natural athlete. Is the star in all physical education held in class. Has average intellectual ability and achievement to match; has a pleasing personality.
-*Bright* Very bright pupil; I.Q. 170. Particularly likes arithmetic but gets outstanding grades in all class work with little or no effort (his success with poor study methods makes it difficult to convince other pupils that they might benefit from learning better study methods). Accepted by others; often a leader.
-*Cqueer* He's so odd we spell it "Cqueer." Tense, withdrawn, and often smiles or talks to himself. Erratic in behavior. Doing very poor school work; rejected by other pupils.
-*Dumb and Deficient* Doubly troubled, I.Q. 75. Three grades below level in school; has difficulty in doing class work. He is older and bigger than other pupils and is accepted by them in such activities as physical education.
-*Engineer* Has his heart set on becoming an engineer. He has high ability and grades. Has many mechanical and electrical hobbies. Not too socially inclined, but is well liked by pupils.
-*Failing* Pupil has average ability and is doing satisfactory work in everything but arithmetic which he is failing. Much upset by failing grade. Has always had trouble with arithmetic, just as his mother did. Liked by fellow pupils.
-*Gauche* Not particularly liked by other pupils. Dresses in poor taste. Not always clean, poor manners, seems awkward for age, does good work in school however.
-*Homely* She just isn't good looking at all. She has a pleasant personality, good social skills, and is accepted by other pupils in class work. Outside of school, however, she is not in a group and other girls tend less often now to be seen with her. Has been pubescent for one year. Does good work in school.
-*Ill* Constantly has colds or other respiratory ailments. Lately has had a bad cough and has lost weight. Says she doesn't feel well. When she does attend school, she does good work and is liked by the pupils.
-*Jerk* A "teacher's pet." Does well in school; goes out of his way to please his teacher. Rushes home after school "to be with Mother." Immature, even "babyish" in his relations with other pupils, disliked by other pupils.
-*Kiddish* Girl's behavior is immature; baby talk, over-dependency on mother, fails to make own decision, etc. Her "cute" manner

	makes her popular with many of the boys. To get average grades in school her parents force her to study and help her with school work.
..... <i>Loafer</i>	Very high ability; average grades. Liked by pupils; active in school affairs. Plans to go to a private high school which has very high standards.
..... <i>Medicine</i>	Wants to become a doctor; but has low ability and low grades. Will probably have difficulty in high school; parents want him to be a doctor.
..... <i>Not Known</i>	Not mentioned by anyone on a Guess Who test. Does average work in school but doesn't discuss in class; teacher says nothing about her stands out. Comes from a farm nearby; not active in group work. Not rejected; just sort of "mousy."

This questionnaire was administered to 103 parochial elementary-school teachers in attendance at the 1960 Summer Session of the University of Notre Dame. Their responses were compared to Mangan's data (1959) on 111 public elementary-school teachers in Ohio in two ways. First, a comparison was made of the percentage distribution of choice of guidance services by both groups for each of the fourteen problem situations. Second, in accordance with Mangan's treatment of his data, the five categories listed in the directions accompanying the questionnaire were reduced to two. Categories 0, 1, and 2 were termed "routine"; categories 3 and 4 "intensive." The chi-square test was used to determine whether there were significant differences in the extent to which the study groups recommended routine or intensive guidance services. The .05 level of confidence was selected as the criterion of significance.

Table 1 presents a percentage breakdown by category of the responses of the study groups. The table should be read as follows: for the case called Athlete, 58 per cent of the parochial and 52 per cent of the public elementary-school teachers thought that no guidance was needed; 37 per cent of the parochial and 43 per cent of the public-school teachers suggested a routine conference; and so on. An analysis of Table 1 indicates a remarkable similarity in the categories selected for each problem situation. In only four of the fourteen categories (Cqueer, Engineer, Homely, and Kiddish) were there different modal responses, and in only one case (Cqueer) was there a difference larger than 20 per cent. In addition, there was a decided tendency for both groups to suggest intensive counseling or referral for students characterized by social or academic

deficiencies. This observation was also reported by Robinson[4] and by Stewart.[2]

On the other hand, less than 10 per cent of the members of either group suggested intensive guidance services for the superior or well-adjusted students (Athlete, Bright, and Engineer). This finding runs counter to one of the purposes of the National Defense Education Act: to use guidance services as a means of helping talented students to make optimal contributions in the interests of national defense. It also suggests that Mr. Conant's recent interest in using guidance services to identify, encourage, and develop talented students[5] has yet to be accepted or practiced at the grass-roots level, for guidance services were viewed by study-group members as remedial and preventive rather than developmental.

TABLE 1 Percentage of Parochial and Public Elementary-School Teachers' Responses for Guidance Action, by Category

Student	No Guidance Needed 0		Routine Conference 1		Special Non-Conference 2		Intensive Counseling 3		Referral to Outside Agency 4	
	Par.	Pub.	Par.	Pub.	Par.	Pub.	Par.	Pub.	Par.	Pub.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Athlete	58	52	37	43	4	5	1	0	0	0
Bright	7	7	15	15	69	70	6	8	3	0
Caqueer	0	0	0	4	3	3	25	53	72	40
Dumb and Deficient	1	0	2	10	20	25	43	40	34	25
Engineer	15	26	43	33	33	35	8	4	1	2
Failing	0	2	30	28	38	49	29	20	3	1
Gauche	2	2	32	29	6	21	52	43	8	5
Homely	7	3	28	25	16	36	42	32	7	4
Ill	4	3	10	24	3	5	8	10	75	58
Jerk	0	1	17	18	14	14	63	61	6	6
Kiddish	0	2	38	29	20	22	37	41	5	6
Loafer	2	3	20	24	62	52	15	21	1	0
Medicine	0	0	46	47	18	18	32	33	4	2
Not Known	3	6	29	27	26	32	40	35	2	0

The data contained in Table 1 do not augur well for the future. Since there are relatively few elementary-school counselors at present, elementary-school teachers will have to bear the brunt of guidance activities. If the study-group members are representative of their co-workers, they will devote much time to working with the deficient and maladjusted at the expense of the superior and the well-adjusted student. Since the elementary-school counselors of the future in all probability will come from the present crop of elementary-school teachers, there is

reason to believe that to a large extent they will continue to view guidance services as remedial and preventive. The talented and potentially superior students in our society will suffer—as will the entire nation—if this negative view of guidance services is not radically altered. Undoubtedly one of the major tasks of both teacher- and counselor-education programs in this decade will be to communicate to future teachers and counselors the belief that guidance services have just as much, if not more, to offer to the development of the superior student as to the rehabilitation of the deficient or unmotivated student.

TABLE 2 Analysis of Observed Differences Between Public and Parochial Elementary-School Teachers' Recommendations of Routine and Intensive Guidance Service *

Student (1)	Chi Square (2)	Level of Significance (3)
Athlete	.0071	.95
Bright	.0275	.90
Cqueer	2.0208	.20
Dumb and Deficient	3.6019	.10
Engineer	1.7099	.20
Failing	3.5422	.10
Gauche	3.3291	.10
Homely	3.4297	.10
Ill	6.3347	.02
Jerk	.1254	.80
Kiddish	.5625	.50
Loafer	.9644	.50
Medicine	.0144	.95
Not Known	.9883	.50

* Degree of freedom = 1

Table 2 presents the results of a chi-square analysis of the significance of the differences between public and parochial elementary-school teachers' recommendations of routine and intensive guidance services. The table shows that in one case only (Ill) was there a significant difference in the recommendations of the study groups. In view of the data contained in Table 1, this finding is not surprising. It should be noted, however, that there were greater differences in the guidance recommendations of the Ohio elementary- and secondary-school groups studied by Mangan[3, p. 34] than in the responses of the parochial and public elementary-school teachers. It is conceivable that the elementary-secondary dimension may be more important than the public-private school one. This possibility bears further investigation.

To the extent that the study groups are representative of public- and

private- (parochial) school teachers, it is possible to conclude that there are no distinguishing general attitudes toward guidance services between these two groups. It seems, therefore, that if administrators in parochial schools were to place guidance services at the disposal of teachers, they would be used at least as often by parochial-school teachers as by public-school teachers. What is most noticeable, however, is that both private and public elementary-school teachers perceive guidance services as means of rehabilitating the deficient rather than as avenues of developing the talented. Here, perhaps, is a major challenge to elementary-school administrators. Through in-service education or other means, they must make their teachers aware of the advantages of the developmental approach to guidance services. A successful developmental guidance program may obviate much of the work required by remedial or preventive guidance programs.

Unfortunately, students also have a tendency to view guidance services from other than a developmental point of view.[6] They share with their teachers the notion that guidance is for those who are performing at a less than satisfactory level on some behavioral dimension. They do not view it as a means of assisting the mediocre to perform at a superior level or as a vehicle for helping the superior student to perform at an exceptional level. They must come to realize that the counseling interview is basically a learning situation and that the well-motivated, intelligent student stands to profit far more from counseling than does the unmotivated, less intelligent student.[7] Perhaps it is in this area that Mr. Conant's report will make its greatest contribution to the modern school; for as students who are known to be excellent are seen in fairly frequent contact with guidance personnel, the stigma currently attached to taking part in a counseling interview will gradually disappear. In sum, until there is a radical departure from a negative, problem-oriented conception of guidance services on the part of teachers and students, the concept of guidance for all youth will be but a counselor-educator's dream.

REFERENCES

1. *The National Defense Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes Program: a Report of the First 50 Institutes*, Bulletin 31 (Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1960), p. 73.
2. Lawrence H. Stewart, "Teachers and Counselors Look at Students: Some Implications for Guidance Practice," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 35 (May 1957), 565-568.

3. John C. Mangan, "Teachers' Recommendation for Guidance Services" (Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1959).
 4. Francis P. Robinson, "Guidance for All: in Principle and in Practice," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 31 (May 1953), 500-504.
 5. James B. Conant, *The American High School Today: a First Report to Interested Citizens* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959), 44-46.
 6. Marilyn Heilfron, "The Function of Counseling as Perceived by High School Students," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 39 (October 1960), 133-136.
 7. Herman J. Peters, "Counseling Services for Talented Students," *Working with Superior Students: Theories and Practices*, ed. Bruce Shertzer (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960), 203.
-

☞ The Guidance-Oriented Elementary Teacher

FRANCES R. HARPER

Unlike guidance at the secondary-school level with its growing use of specialists, elementary-school guidance remains primarily the ongoing responsibility of the classroom teacher.

The National Defense Education Act of 1958 authorizes the use of federal funds to improve guidance, testing, and counseling services at the secondary level. The legislators had nothing to say about guidance in the elementary school. For the time being, the shortage of trained personnel and the emphasis on search for talent at the secondary level will probably prevent any major new developments in guidance practices in the elementary school.

The practical concept of guidance for the grade-school child may be considered just about forty years old. The Commonwealth Fund in the 1920's sponsored a dual program which provided for the establishment of experimental child-guidance clinics and visiting-teacher services.

While the child-guidance movement has grown steadily, the visiting-teacher movement developed very slowly. Since 1945, however, many state departments of education, in their efforts to improve school attendance, have sponsored the employment of visiting teachers (also called school, social workers, elementary counsellors, and pupil personnel workers).

Activities of the visiting teacher, like those of other special consultants to the elementary school, are designed to assist the teacher in his efforts to bring out children's talents and strengths as well as to correct or offset their shortcomings and weaknesses. For the most part, elementary-school

REPRINTED FROM THE *NEA JOURNAL*, 49, (MARCH 1960), BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR.

teachers and administrators have been readily able to blend the concepts of guidance with their interest in teaching "the whole child."

Fortunately, elementary educators seldom visualize guidance in their schools either as a watered-down version of secondary-school guidance or as designed only for those children whose behavior is disturbing or deficient.

Certain administrative requirements lie back of the assumption that the classroom teacher is primarily responsible for the day-to-day guidance of all his students. One of these is that teachers who are assigned to a particular grade will understand not only the subject matter but also the physical, social, and emotional characteristics of children of that age. Another assumption is that pupils with marked physical, mental, or emotional difficulties will not be placed in the regular classroom.

Guidance at the elementary level is most significantly a point of view to be adopted and developed by the classroom teacher. This point of view, first of all, rejects an authoritarian approach and accepts mutual respect as a basis for all relationships.

Using this approach, teachers avoid such labels as good and bad, right and wrong, superior and inferior. Rather than comparing one child with another, they look for talents, assets, and strong points within the individual child. Giftedness may be social, psychological, scholastic, artistic, or mechanical.

Jerry, for example, bothers his neighbors, leaves his seat to look at exhibits, and interrupts with questions. The teacher does not jump to the conclusion that he is an emotionally disturbed child who has been over-indulged at home and who needs to be disciplined into realizing that his excessive demands for attention cannot always be met.

Observation of Jerry in a number of situations may reveal him to be a bright, alert, and curious child. Here, indeed, may be, not the neurotic who needs to be subdued, but the potential scientist for whom we are searching so assiduously at the secondary level. The guidance Jerry needs may well be the constructive opening of broader and deeper vistas than those now offered to him.

Linda, on the other hand, is very quiet and conforming. Her presence is so unobtrusive that one scarcely notices her frequent absences.

With a child like Linda, the guidance-oriented teacher does not unconcernedly accept written excuses from home regarding colds and other minor illnesses. Realizing that here may be a seriously disturbed child who is having difficulty separating herself from her mother, the teacher

may seek the help of the visiting teacher, the nurse, or other professional consultants.

Guidance, like other aspects of modern education, needs to be increasingly rooted in the scientific method, which calls for a conscious and systematic collection and examination of pertinent data before a tentative conclusion is reached. New information may change not only some details but the whole trend of evaluation of a child or a class of children.

One primary teacher, by way of illustration, had a rather negative impression of the guidance concept. She began by studying (superficially) the three or four children most difficult for her to discipline. After reaching a tentative diagnosis of "emotionally disturbed," she considered her study completed and turned her attention to the next most obstreperous group. As she proceeded from group to group with this negative point of view, she in effect created a whole class of "exceedingly difficult" children.

Toward the end of the first term, this teacher had to resign to care for her ill mother. The teacher who replaced her thought of guidance as a positive continuing process for all children. Most of the acute problems subsided. This class of "exceedingly difficult" children was transformed, mainly by a change in teacher attitude, into an effective social unit of children who wanted to learn.

This group of children has been followed closely for six years. With but two exceptions, they have made satisfactory to excellent progress. Special services have been required for two of the children because of unusually disordered home situations. Significantly, however, these two children were not among those on whom the original teacher focused her early negative diagnoses.

While teachers need to be careful not to jump to negative conclusions, they should not, on the other hand, continue to gloss over potentially serious disturbances. As in the case of Linda, co-operative as well as unco-operative children need to be carefully studied.

The earlier a child's emotional difficulties are perceived and treated, of course, the better. Clinical practitioners assure us that faulty emotional behavior is at least as difficult to modify as faulty study or learning habits and that early treatment should be the rule.

There has been a tendency in many elementary schools to wait to see if a child will outgrow emotional problems. Although such a judgment is sometimes justified, it is certainly a hazardous general rule. Far too often, behavioral difficulties reappear in somewhat different forms, but

with increased intensity, under the stress of adolescence. It is generally advisable to have a plan for direct and active guidance of children with problems rather than to count on nature to effect a magical growth cure.

Two guidance functions which are usually carried out according to standardized procedures are testing and record keeping. The uniform and objective appearance of record sheets, however, should not so intimidate the classroom teacher that he will never question the reliability or validity of the data reported. The perfect test has not yet been conceived, and automation will probably never fully remove human errors from record keeping.

The alert teacher, for example, may quite accurately see Kenneth as a bright child instead of the dull child reported by the mental-abilities test. It may be that the difference between his observations and the record derives from a reading disability, and Kenneth may need the help of a specialist.

Tests and records are by no means, however, proper objects for a teacher's scorn and ridicule. Imperfect though they are, they provide the best source of information about the developing child—his early and present state of health, his family and social history, and his school achievement and adjustment.

The guidance-oriented teacher not only draws from, but also adds to, the development record of the child. His synopsis of a year's observations of a child will provide the most important beginning for the next teacher's understanding.

In conclusion, then, the concept of guidance is nothing new or threatening to the well-trained elementary-school educator. At its best, it is the clarifying, integrating, and implementing of what the teacher and administrator have been trying to do all along (and, all handicaps considered, doing quite well). Elementary-school guidance is an organized effort to help the teacher more effectively understand and meet the most important needs of the individual child.

Guidance in the Elementary School

ANNA R. MEEKS

One of the most important current trends in guidance is the growth of organized programs at the elementary level.

The urgency of the demand for guidance in the elementary school has become greater as the greater complexity of modern living has increased the pressures which can be factors in a child's maladjustment and which hinder learning. Teachers have seen, for example, that emotional pressures upon the child by the school, his parents, or his peers may create an emotional block which will prevent his learning to read until, through counseling or other help, the block is removed.

More significant than the recognition of the usefulness of guidance in the correction of maladjustment has been the acceptance of guidance as an integral part of the whole educational program. Guidance is now regarded as much more than a privilege accorded the maladjusted; it is also needed by other children and requires programs that have as their major objective helping all children to be at ease with themselves and with others.

Such an approach calls for a carefully organized program of services within the individual school, supplemented by services provided through a central office staff. Helping children meet their personal, social, educational, and vocational needs is facilitated by participation of administrators, teachers, parents, guidance specialists (counselors), school nurses, school psychologists, and community agencies.

The principal is responsible for policies, organization, and leadership. Through effective and democratic leadership, he promotes an over-all school climate in which guidance can be effective. The teacher is a participant in and not merely a recipient of guidance services for his pupils.

REPRINTED FROM THE *NEA JOURNAL*, 51, (MARCH 1962), BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR.

He shares with the counselor many responsibilities including the identification of children with special needs. In identifying these children and in fulfilling his key role in guidance services, the teacher makes use of his own observations, anecdotal records, sociograms, informal interviews, and the insight gained from study of his pupils' autobiographies and other creative forms of expression.

The counseling process in the elementary school differs from counseling at other levels only in its use of some specialized techniques which are particularly suited to the developmental level of the younger child. The counselor's office with its toys, pictures, and books offers a relaxing situation in which the child can handle his tensions, face his concept of himself and others, and learn to live with himself and his fellow classmates.

The uncommunicative child may be able to talk to the counselor on a toy telephone, or may express his hostile feelings by abusing a toy. No attempt is made to diagnose emotional problems or to structure therapy sessions through toys, but their use has a legitimate place in the counseling of elementary children, as the following example shows.

One day fourth-grader Mary came into the counselor's office and stood looking at the toy shelves. Apparently she was not ready to talk about whatever was troubling her but soon she began manipulating two hand puppets, one representing a baby; the other, a little girl. "That's Buddy and this is me," she explained and proceeded to let Buddy beat her badly in a vigorous fight.

On subsequent visits to the counselor, Mary repeated the puppet act several times. When Mary's mother visited the school, the counselor told her about the fights and got this startled reply, "Come to think of it, that baby is licking the whole family! It's time we took him in hand."

Armed with new insight, the mother and the counselor were able to help Mary see herself as a valued person. The teacher, in turn, was able to help her find more satisfaction in her school work.

Of course, had Mary's emotional troubles been more deep-seated, the counselor would have referred her to other specialists. Or, if Mary's problems had been common to those of several other children in her school, she might have been counseled with them in a group, rather than individually.

Small groups of intermediate children often benefit from talking together in the counselor's office. They discuss their school experiences, help each other recognize strengths and weaknesses, and decide how they

can improve their strengths and remove their weaknesses. In working with these groups, the counselor will supplement unstructured conversation with effective methods of group work, such as sociodramas and role playing.

In some cases, group counseling is especially effective with underachievers.

A fifth-grade teacher, for instance, was troubled by the fact that two of his boys, Ted and Billy, were not working up to their ability. When he mentioned this to the counselor, he found that she had just scheduled some weekly sessions for five other boys from intermediate grades who were also underachievers. Ted and Billy would be welcome to join.

From these sessions, the boys emerged with a greater sense of responsibility and new confidence in their ability to learn.

Effective though group counseling may be in correcting some results of underachievement, it is far better to prevent underachievement from ever becoming a problem by early and continuous identification of children with superior mental ability.

As pointed out at greater length in the chapter I wrote last year for the study, *Guidance for the Underachiever with Superior Ability* (published by the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare), bright children share with all children the many needs that are met by guidance services. In addition, they have unique needs arising from their superior ability. They may need help in their relationships with less mature children; routines and drills may become irksome and cause them to lose their motivations for learning; adult expectations for the academically able child may exert pressures which adversely affect the pupil.

The guidance process can also have important bearing on another aspect of underachievement. While there has been a wide acceptance of a readiness level for reading instruction, many schools have failed to recognize that there are readiness levels for all types of learning and that an individual child may have wide differences in readiness levels, as Johnny's story illustrates.

Johnny's reading-readiness score indicated he was ready for formal reading and should make good progress in school. After a few weeks, however, he was having difficulty in both reading and arithmetic. Constantly urged by his parents to do better, he had become an unhappy, confused child.

Miss Brown, his teacher, consulted the counselor and after studying all the factors in his case, they concluded that his reading-readiness score

reflected his rich home background more than his mental maturity and that it did not indicate readiness for all learning. When the parents had the situation explained to them, they stopped pressuring Johnny to make rapid progress, with the result that he was able to lead a more comfortable and realistic school life.

The concept of readiness for learning in this broader application needs the greater clarification that can come through child study and through extension and intensification of elementary-school guidance.

Certainly, the problem of the underachiever with superior ability will be greater at the secondary and college levels if guidance has been lacking or ineffective in early school experience.

To sum up, the elementary-school counselor is a professionally trained person with depth of understanding and knowledge in child development, theories of counseling, group dynamics, classroom teaching, curriculum trends, school administration, public relations, and the organization of guidance services.

These requirements explain in part why well-trained counselors are in woefully short supply. The main reason, however, is that few school budgets have adequately allowed for counseling services, particularly at the elementary level. Even the provisions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 were specifically written for secondary schools.

These facts notwithstanding, I believe that in the next ten years, elementary-school guidance will grow rapidly. It is essential, however, that such guidance not be a pale replica of secondary-school guidance. Rather, the two programs must complement each other and provide continuous coverage for each child from the school's first contact with him until he goes from high school to the right college or the right job.



Part Two

INDIVIDUAL APPRAISAL
OF THE ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL CHILD

☞ Techniques of Studying Children

SYBIL RICHARDSON

School systems have been studying children for years and have devised a variety of interesting approaches for use in their studies. We might begin our discussion by reviewing some of our assumptions about the principal's role in studying children. Obviously, principals cannot initiate a program of child study by order or by fiat, for to get teachers to look with sensitivity at children, consideration must be given to whatever questions or problems that are of concern to the teachers. We are interested in long-term planning for the study of children, not just a study of a child here and there. Therefore, we must have a plan for maintaining a comprehensive program of child study.

We have long recognized that the principal's behavior plays an important part in creating the child study atmosphere of the school. Certainly his day-by-day behavior has a powerful influence upon the teachers' interest in studying children. For instance, the principal visits classrooms to help teachers with the problems of curriculum, of securing and using materials, and of room arrangement, he does not at first comment on the teacher's methods of handling children. Later, however, he raises questions about the boy in the back of the room who does not seem to be interested, or the girl who apparently requires so much attention. In these ways he stimulates the teacher's interest in each child in the class. Many principals regularly observe during the medical examinations of children to gather important information about certain children which they convey to the children's teachers so that they can better understand the children's classroom behavior. Many principals spend a great deal of time dealing patiently and thoughtfully with each child who continues to be sent to their offices by teachers. The provisions which princi-

REPRINTED FROM *CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION*, 26, 10 (MAY 1958), 227-236, BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR.

pals make for cumulative records, for collection of data, and for the transfer of records also contribute to teachers' understanding of children. Our California professional organizations of principals and supervisors have made an unusual contribution to a system of cumulative records which can be used and transferred from one school to another. These are a few of the ways in which principals play essential roles in helping teachers to understand children. They interpret children to teachers and teachers and children to parents. In a sense, principals play a three-way intermediary role as they listen to each one and try to help each understand the other.

We might briefly review three methods of child study with which many are familiar. One of these, the case study conference method, which was first used by child guidance clinics, has been used extensively in California. Another, the three-year child study program originally sponsored by the Institute of Child Study at the University of Maryland is now being sponsored by certain of the institutions of higher learning in our state. This program provides for continuity in teachers' study of children. Then we have some typical studies of children's responses. Many teachers use this type of study consistently and continuously as a means of determining what curriculum experiences the children need.

The Child Guidance Conference, a Means of Studying Children

Use of the case study conference in California began many years ago. The State Department of Institutions (now the State Department of Mental Hygiene) maintained a traveling clinic which provided services to many school districts. In most communities the school district or the county superintendent of schools subsequently took over these services because both principals and teachers recognized their values.

In a child guidance conference the principal has a key role in helping teachers to select children who need to be studied by a psychologist, social worker, or physician. Certain observations are required to secure information needed about each child and the principal must give the teacher help in recording this information. Teachers were at first so overwhelmed by the job of collecting the material which was required in making case studies that the principal's help and encouragement was essential. Usually, in making a case study the psychologist or the coun-

selor takes major responsibility for completing a synthesis of the results of observations made by teachers and specialists, and for reporting recommendations for the child's improvement. These conferences are open to all teachers not only those concerned with a particular child.

The guidance conference method has been consistently used as an in-service activity to help teachers understand children. Many principals report that even where the services of specialists, such as psychologists and social workers, are not available the activity proves to be fruitful. At certain faculty meetings, attention is centered upon one or two children by the principal asking questions about the children. For the next month or two each member of the staff makes it his business to observe the children while they are on the playground, in the cafeteria, or in the hall and to use the results of his observation to understand each child better. Then in another faculty meeting the teachers and principal discuss what they learned through their observations. Many staffs report that such concerted study produced most worth-while results.

☞ The Three-year Program of Child Study

The child study program originally sponsored by the University of Maryland is extending throughout many parts of the state. This program is voluntary. However, teachers who wish to participate must enroll for three years. During the first year, the emphasis is upon improving observation records of behavior. The activities of the second year are designed to help teachers understand the child within the context of a six area framework. During the third year, study is focused upon the child's self-concept and adjustment. The University of California, Los Angeles, has recently offered graduate credit to teachers enrolling in this child study program. In this program a teacher selects one child each year for intensive study. The child so selected for study is not disturbed or maladjusted, but a child in whom the teacher is especially interested. Teachers usually report that they find that through participation in this study they get a great deal of help in teaching the children studied and that their understanding of all children improves. Probably another strength of the program is that the teachers work in a group and find some personal security from doing so. Many of the leaders for the program are teachers who have had special training for assuming the responsibility.

☞ Observing and Listening to Children, a Part of Curriculum Development

A third type of child study involves the use of questions by principals and their staffs as guides for observing children and as means of encouraging children to talk. Information thus collected helps them to make wise decisions regarding how each child can best be given the help he needs. We are making decisions about youngsters every day all day long, but too often thoughtlessly, routinely, and traditionally.

☞ Studying Children's Intellectual Development

Standardized tests have been used extensively in studying children's intellectual growth. When the results secured by using these tests are discussed, teachers often comment that somehow they think the children have learned more and that they (the teachers) have taught more than is revealed in the tests.

In the beginning of a social studies unit the principal who raises a simple question such as "What do you suppose the children already know about this topic?" may lead teachers to an interesting study. One group of teachers, for instance, who were planning a study of California for children who had recently come from many parts of the country, wondered what the children knew about California. The children were, therefore, asked to write or talk about California. The results showed wide diversity in the children's concepts and understanding. One little girl who lived in a trailer court wrote, "People like to come to California because it is beautiful. I wish I were there right now this very minute." This child apparently did not realize she was actually living in California. Her drab surroundings did not resemble the glamorous California she had heard and read about.

Another group interested in children's understanding of geography had the children answer questions such as "What makes a river?" "Why is a river important?" "What makes rain?" In looking over the children's responses the teachers sensed the full impact of the enormous differences in understanding among the children. Almost for the first time they recognized the extent to which each child's life experience influences what he knows and what he can learn. Children who had spent a good deal of time in California, for instance, gave answers that described a river

as a stone ditch that they could not play in or a ditch with wire around it. Certain children who had seen the Mississippi or those who had more verbal fluency gave long and complete answers. One child wrote, "In the early millions of years ago, when the mountains were forming, water washing through the valley made rivers, and today, water melting from the mountains goes down these washes." Through analyzing the responses the teachers began to find ways of utilizing the children's abilities so that all might learn from one another's experiences.

One of the principal's tasks is to help teachers classify and analyze the answers collected. This may result in grouping the children according to those who are unable to respond, those who made confused or erroneous responses, those who made very simple and matter-of-fact responses, and those who made quite complex responses. In making the analysis the teachers may become especially interested in such points as the creative expressions, unusual responses, and the way in which words are used.

Whether the children should sign their written responses depends upon how the responses are to be used. Generally, the children are not at first required to sign their names and are told that they do not have to worry especially about their spelling or grammar. This leaves them free to respond to the questions as they wish. Later the children may voluntarily sign their papers or identify the papers they wrote.

In one school the eighth grade teachers were especially interested in children's ideas about democracy. They, therefore, asked their pupils to write responses to questions such as: "What does democracy mean to you?" "Can you think of anything that happened to you recently which was undemocratic?" While they were studying the responses, the teachers began to ask, "What would younger children say?" "When was this learned?" "Was this learned at home or at school?" They then decided to ask the sixth grade boys and girls to answer questions like those the pupils in the eighth grade had answered. A comparison of the two sets of responses revealed the growth children make from year to year. For instance, in one typical sixth grade class, 24 children gave some indication of understanding the concept of democracy. They said such things as "it means being fair and square," "having equal rights," "having freedom," or "the right to protest." However, the answers of ten children indicated that they were confused. For instance, one child said, "Democracy is what Hitler told the people and it's all lies." Another child said, "It's when you do something wrong." Four children said, "It's some kind of punishment." This answer raised several questions in the teachers' minds

about the words they had used in trying to improve children's behavior. Five children were unable to answer any of the questions.

All the children in the eighth grade were able to give a rather complex statement on the concept of democracy. Many of them not only used such phrases as "it is a way of government in which people are concerned" or "in which we have freedom," but added the more subtle statement that "it is a way of living and working together or helping one another." In the eighth grade, too, all the pupils gave some evidence that they were able to evaluate their experiences in terms of the concept of democracy. One impression obtained from the responses was the amount of injustice which children face and of which adults are unaware. For instance, the children told stories of not being waited on in the store, or of not receiving correct change and being told to leave when they asked for it. The lack of sensitivity of others to the problems which children face was clearly revealed. On the other hand, many children reported evidences of democratic practices at home, at school, and in their neighborhood.

One eighth grade pupil wrote, "I think democracy means to have a free country and a right to go to the church of your choice, to have plenty to eat, and to be safe in your own house. It also means that you can pick your own friends." As an example of a democratic incident that happened to her, she adds, "My next door neighbor gave me some papers for our paper drive and she also gave me some cactus for my small garden." Another child wrote, "Democracy means more than just a form of government, it is a government and a life for the people, and with people and by the people, it is being fair, honest, and helpful." Another pupil wrote, "Democracy is to help everyone by living fair and honest, and you have freedom of speech, religion, and thought." This child went on to say, "In our home we have a democratic form of government. We have a court, our meeting place is the dining room table, our judge is my father. We decide as a whole what to do on some days, but we mostly decide things like what time to have bed time and how to punish, and we are all convinced that the majority is almost always right."

Many questions occur as we look at these ways of trying to assess children's intellectual growth. Our standardized testing programs need to be studied. Some staffs have become interested in trying to assess how the children themselves feel about taking frequent standardized tests. They want answers to questions such as: How do the children feel about the fairness or unfairness of such tests? How do they feel about how well

they did? What parts were hardest for the children? What parts were easiest for the children? Do the children who consistently score low recognize this? Do the children meet routine standardized tests with a defensive sense of defeat? The suspicion is growing that repeated testing does not improve diagnosis and that it lessens the motivation of the very children who already have the poorest motivation.

☞ Studying Children's Social Behaviors and Adjustment

■ In studying children's social behavior, Foshay's *Children's Social Values*[1] is a helpful reference. Teachers describe the many ways in which they tried to study children's social values and social behavior. For instance, several teachers raised questions about children's sense of follow-through and responsibility. They asked, "Why is it that some children who promise to bring apple boxes for the store, money for milk, or books from home consistently fail to do so? How can we help these children to develop the responsibility and follow-through that is part of character?" Their first hypothesis was that the children who verbally committed themselves and said "I will bring this Tuesday" were the ones who brought the material. Many of us who had worked on adult committees might have predicted that the teachers would find this hypothesis to be faulty. We know that people may glibly promise to do something and then forget to do the required job. The teachers found, however, that the children whose security in the group was revealed by sociometric ratings, who had friends, were liked, and who felt this was a good school and a fine class were the children who generally carried out their promises. The teachers concluded that if they wanted to develop character in youngsters, they should not talk *at* them about character, or scold, or moralize, but should instead work hard at making the children feel comfortable and secure in their group."

One group of teachers studied children's aggression. The observations the teachers had made of incidents of hitting, pushing, and shoving on the playground had made them wonder whether the undesirable incidents were caused by a few children or were produced by all. To secure the information needed for their study the teachers recorded information about the acts of aggression which they observed. They also gathered

information by having the children answer questions such as "How do people make you feel bad? How do people hurt your feelings? What do people do to you when they want to be mean?"

The children's answers included references to many of the same kinds of undesirable behavior, such as hitting and pushing, that the teachers had observed. The children also reported many behaviors which they thought to be unfair and undesirable but which adults seldom give much if any attention. Apparently, the children thought that not being invited to a birthday party, being turned away from a group they wished to join, and having a face made at them were as undesirable as any of the behaviors adults classify as bad. The teachers began to wonder how children interpret hitting and pushing. They secured the desired answers by composing little stories of the incidents observed and asking the children questions about them such as "Why do you think Jimmie hit Joe?" and "Why did Sally push Mary?" In most incidents the children interpreted aggression as "getting back," saying, "Well, it must have been last week Sally did something to Mary. Something happened before this." The teachers concluded that too often adults attempt to settle incidents of aggression without fully understanding the history of the acts.

Teachers can deepen their understanding of children's social behavior by having the children express themselves regarding the following questions and then analyzing the children's responses. "Who are the big shots among the pupils?" "What do you have to do to get to be a wheel in a group of pupils?" "Who are the pupils that teachers favor or that are most popular with the teachers?" By encouraging teachers to use techniques, principals have frequently helped teachers to discover the children who are overlooked and to help all to build a feeling of group belonging.

In using the sociometric techniques one group of teachers asked the children questions like "Do you like to work alone?" "Do you like to work with others better than to work alone?" Most of the children stated they preferred to work with others. Some of them gave the following reasons for their preferences. "Two heads are better than one." "People have different kinds of knowledge they can pool." The teachers became interested in the children who didn't want to work in groups because, as the children said, "Then you wouldn't get all the credit" or "Somebody else would be lazy and make you do all the work." One child asked, "How would the teacher know who did it if we worked together?" The information gathered served as a springboard for a study of the children

who were developing individualistic and competitive attitudes. The teachers concluded that all the children needed help in determining when it is best to work alone and when it is best to work with others.

Many questions for study are related to discipline. For example, the children in one group were asked to list rules that adults follow, rules that children follow, and why we have rules. The children's responses made it apparent that the school had done an effective job of teaching important rules, especially those of safety. Two-thirds of the children indicated in their responses that they thought rules were necessary because of man's "evil" nature, giving such reasons as "Everybody would be killing one another," or "Everybody would be stealing from one another." The teachers agreed that perhaps the children had too often thought of the need for rules in relation to horrible examples. They agreed that for their own happiness and security, children need to view other human beings as honest, friendly, and helpful, rather than with suspicion and distrust.

Studying Children's Questions, Interests, and Anxieties

In his interest survey, Jersild found that only one subject, social studies, was mentioned by children in almost all grades as being disliked, more than liked. Many principals and teachers thought that this would not be true in California and, therefore, surveyed their pupils. The teachers were right. They found that social studies was not disliked as much as it was liked, but that English was mentioned most frequently as more disliked than liked.

In the report card study described in the *California Journal of Elementary Education*[2] several teachers made tape recordings of children's discussions of their report cards. In one group the children were guessing at the meaning of items on their report cards. One child said, "I wonder what it means 'to put away materials'." "What do they mean by that?" and another one would say, "Well, maybe it's art," and another one would say, "No, it couldn't be art because there is another place for that." Apparently children are not clear about the behaviors that are evaluated. The children were confused regarding such terms as self-control. One child, for instance, said, "I got a need to improve in self-control," and another quickly said, "Well, you are new to school and

had to get acquainted, didn't you? That's okay." Another child said, "I got a need to improve in self-control because the kids at my table all tell such good jokes."

Principals and teachers have planned parent-teacher association meetings around children's own responses. One interesting study was based on the children's unsigned reactions to questions. These included, "When my mother sees my report card she usually ———," "When my father sees my report card he usually ———." The parent committee was impressed with the different family attitudes which were revealed. Some families apparently give immediate support to the children when he brings his report card home, others apparently exert continuous pressure on children to get better marks. Such study is important in helping parents, teachers, and children to understand one another.

Another meeting was centered upon the responses children made in completing the statement: "I'd like to do my best work at school, and usually I try. When I don't, it's because ———." The reasons that the children gave were used as a basis for class discussions and conferences. The kinds of problems and solutions which the young people formulate are impressive. In a recent teen-age conference, seventh and eighth grade pupils made a long list of problems and then had certain pupils suggest solutions to the problems of each type. The suggestions made give us a basis for having confidence in children's insights and in the soundness of their judgments. The follow through on suggestions and recommendations is, of course, important.

Perhaps the many specifics can be brought together in several principles regarding our own ways of working as principals. To help teachers look at children and listen to children, we ourselves must have an attitude of inquiry. We have to be sensitive to any question, however trivial, which may serve as a springboard for continued study. Secondly, we have to have an attitude of acceptance, and this again means not sitting in judgment of others as we are often quick to do. As adults study the responses of children they often seem to discount them with responses such as: "Well, they are just being silly. That's just to show-off. They just said that to please you." We cannot afford to make such judgments but must consider expression and feelings as facts, true at least for the moment. Principals must be sensitive to their role of helping teachers, parents, and children to perceive and communicate clearly with one another. This is hard, for these three groups have a strong impact upon the principal who must absorb complaints, anger, and hostility some-

times from parents, sometimes from teachers, sometimes from children. It is difficult not to pass these feelings on to others. It is often hard to avoid reaction and to stress mutual understanding. We can support others when we understand them. This does not imply full endorsement of their actions. The principal's leadership role involves continuously helping teachers to study children so that a school environment will be created in which co-operative and productive teamwork flourishes.

REFERENCES

1. Arthur W. Foshay *et al.*, *Children's Social Values: An Action Research Study* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954).
2. Sybil Richardson, "How Do Children Feel About Reports to Parents?" *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 24 (November 1955), 106-107.

Teacher Knowledge of Pupil Data and Marking Practices at the Elementary School Level

ROBERT L. BAKER
ROY P. DOYLE

In January of 1954, a committee of representatives from the school community began the study of several problems relating to guidance practices in Madison Elementary School District, Phoenix, Arizona. Special subcommittees were created to work intensively on each problem being studied. The Subcommittee on Pupil Data undertook the study of problems involved in the collection and utilization of information about pupils.

Members of this subcommittee set for themselves three objectives: (1) the development of an adequate testing program; (2) the promotion of other techniques for obtaining information about pupils; and (3) the encouragement of teachers to make optimum use of all available pupil data in pupil guidance.

Careful study of the principal tests of intelligence and achievement led to the adoption of a district-wide testing program. The subcommittee also planned and conducted a series of faculty meetings designed to promote effective use of sociograms, student autobiographies, and anecdotal records in accumulating information about pupils. In addition, emphasis was placed on interpretation of test results to pupils and parents.

The Subcommittee on Pupil Data held that the value of guidance activities at the elementary school level depends, in large part, on the

REPRINTED FROM *THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL*, 37, 9 (MAY 1959), 644-647, BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHORS.

ability of the teacher to make effective use of pupil information in helping the learner achieve optimum adjustment.

☞ Evaluating Results

In the spring of 1957, the Subcommittee on Pupil Data turned its primary attention to the evaluation of the effects of its work to date. It was recognized that knowledge of facts about individual pupils is not enough, and that until these facts result in desirable modifications of teacher behavior they have served no useful purpose. For this reason the committee felt that the success of the program should not be judged by the volume of pupil data available but by evidence that this condition fostered improved teacher understanding of individual pupils and resulted in more effective services to these children.

☞ A Criterion of Success

It was agreed that one desired result of the recent increased emphasis on pupil data was improved student evaluation which should be reflected in changes in teachers' marking practices.

As an individualized system of marking was employed in the Madison schools, the marks assigned purportedly indicated the extent to which each individual pupil's progress was commensurate with his potential. The committee reasoned that if teachers were cognizant of the capabilities and limitations of each child, and if they used this knowledge to adapt the curriculum to him, children of less ability would work as near their capacity as those who were more capable. Under these conditions, in which the teacher's expectations vary with the ability of each child, it was assumed that the relationship between assigned marks and intelligence test scores would approach zero.

If, on the other hand, teachers are not sensitive to appraisal techniques or are unable to identify certain pupil characteristics, it was assumed that they will tend more frequently to expect some standard performance from a child instead of individualizing their evaluations. In these circumstances, a disproportionately large number of unsatisfactory marks would be assigned to the less intelligent pupils while the same would be true of the satisfactory marks assigned to those with more than an average degree of intelligence. This would result in a moderate to moder-

ately high correlation coefficient between marks and intelligence test scores.

The basic assumption, that a reduction in the correlation coefficient between intelligence test scores and school marks should be considered evidence of increased effectiveness on the part of teachers in implementing the schools' philosophy of evaluating pupil progress and assigning marks, was accepted by the committee as a criterion for evaluating the effects of its emphasis on pupil data.

§ The Study

One part of evaluating the effectiveness of the in-service program in this regard, then, is to determine the extent to which intelligence and grades are related under the conditions which prevailed before the in-service program went into operation, and to compare these r -values with those derived from the correlation of grades and intelligence test scores after the pupil data program had been functioning for a period of time. If the latter r -values are significantly lower than the former, there is evidence to indicate that the grading philosophy, in part at least, is being implemented effectively by the teachers.

The hypothesis to be tested with respect to each of the subject matter achievement areas being studied is: there is no difference between the predictive effectiveness of intelligence test scores under the two conditions, 1953 and 1956.

§ Procedure

Data were gathered for the year 1953 by determining first those pupils currently in each 6th, 7th, and 8th grade classroom who had received first semester grades as 3rd, 4th, and 5th grade pupils in 1953 and for whom intelligence test scores were available. A random sample of five of these pupils was selected from each classroom. The score from the intelligence test, as well as the first semester marks received in reading, spelling, language, and arithmetic, were recorded for each pupil in the sample. Marks received in the column headed Satisfactory Progress were recorded as satisfactory. Those received in the columns headed Improving—More Progress Desired and Little Progress Shown were recorded as unsatisfactory.

For each school subject, a point biserial correlation coefficient was

computed to determine the relationship between school marks and intelligence test scores received by this group of pupils.

To study grading practices in 1956, five pupils were selected randomly from each current 3rd, 4th, and 5th grade classroom. The same procedure was used which was employed in studying 1953 marking practices.

Twenty-eight teachers were involved in the 1953 portion of the study. With the exception of teacher personnel changes in five classes and the fact that one class was dropped between 1953 and 1956, the teacher personnel involved in the study remained the same. This meant that 22 teachers in the 1956 portion of the study were members of the original group of 1953 teachers.

Results

TABLE 1 shows the point biserial r data between intelligence test scores and grades for 1953 and 1956. Inspection of this table indicates that a larger percentage of unsatisfactory grades was assigned for all subjects in 1956. This may mean that in general teachers had achieved greater confidence as a result of increased knowledge of pupil data. In 1953, they felt unable to appraise accurately pupil ability and under an individualized marking program felt reluctant to assign unsatisfactory marks to some

TABLE 1 Point Biserial Correlation Coefficient Data Between Intelligence Test Scores and School Marks Received in 1953 and 1956

Subject	Date	Mark	No.	%	Mean IQ	r_p
Reading	1953	Satisfactory	122	87.14	113.22	0.450
		Unsatisfactory	18	12.86	93.28	
	1956	Satisfactory	107	79.26	114.92	0.250
		Unsatisfactory	28	20.74	106.75	
Spelling	1953	Satisfactory	120	85.71	112.98	0.379
		Unsatisfactory	20	14.29	96.70	
	1956	Satisfactory	104	77.04	114.62	0.192
		Unsatisfactory	31	22.96	108.55	
Language	1953	Satisfactory	129	92.17	111.39	0.169
		Unsatisfactory	11	7.83	102.09	
	1956	Satisfactory	112	82.96	114.48	0.209
		Unsatisfactory	23	17.04	107.09	
Arithmetic	1953	Satisfactory	118	84.29	112.81	0.337
		Unsatisfactory	22	15.71	99.14	
	1956	Satisfactory	106	78.51	115.37	0.306
		Unsatisfactory	29	21.48	105.38	

pupils who actually were not performing up to expectancy, whereas in 1956, the increased knowledge of existing pupil characteristics gave them the necessary basis for more sensitive mark assignment.

For reading and spelling, the r -values computed in 1956 were considerably lower than those derived from 1953 data. In the case of reading, the r -value in 1953 indicated a moderate relationship ($r = 0.45$) between intelligence and marks; the r -value in 1956 was a moderately low positive value ($r = 0.25$).

In the case of language and arithmetic, there was no significant difference between the r -values computed for 1953 and 1956. They were moderate to moderately low positive values.

☞ Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that in 1953, when teachers had few objective measures of pupil ability to guide them, a moderate positive correlation existed between intelligence and school marks in reading, $r = 0.45$, and spelling, $r = 0.38$. Since the school marks were purported to measure the degree to which each child's achievement was commensurate with his ability, these correlations indicated that a larger proportion of the more capable pupils were judged by their teachers to be working up to their level of ability than were the less capable.

In 1956, after the adoption of a district-wide testing program and increased emphasis on the importance of collecting and utilizing pupil data, the correlations between intelligence and marks in reading, $r = 0.25$, and spelling, $r = 0.19$, were considerably lower than they were in 1953.

It appeared also that as teachers gained more information about their pupils, they increased the number of unsatisfactory marks which they assigned to the more capable students, indicating greater confidence in their ability to assign grades on an individualized basis.

It is difficult to establish with any degree of certainty that the reductions in these correlations were brought about primarily as a result of emphasis on the collection and use of pupil data and not some other factor also operating in the school system during this period. However, it should be pointed out that in previous years extensive study of the marking philosophy and procedure was carried on and reports and recommendations were made available to teachers. Inspection of the records indicates that teachers' marking practices changed very little during periods when this was the object of direct study. On the other

hand, marked changes occurred during the period when primary emphasis was placed upon the utilization of test results and other pupil data.

The Subcommittee on Pupil Data felt that this study produced the most encouraging evidence to date that the increased interest which this group had stimulated in the utilization of pupil data was having a desirable influence on educational practices in the Madison schools. Although the evidence is of a rather limited nature, it is noteworthy that it indicates a change in teacher behavior and not merely an increase in the inventory of the tools available to them.

☞ Identifying Children Through Measurements¹

HERBERT J. KLAUSMEIER

Increasingly school systems are attempting to improve educational opportunities for all children. In the process of improvement, more careful attention is being given to identifying pupils of markedly inferior and markedly superior learning abilities. Whether heterogeneous classes or special classes for part or all of the instructional program are operated, it is essential to ascertain pupils' learning abilities if best provisions for all children are to be made. Reliable identification of pupils' learning abilities is crucial if special classes are arranged for educable mentally retarded children or for pupils of superior learning abilities, or if pupils are placed in ungraded or primary or intermediate schools. Some first results of a longitudinal study started in 1956-1957 are subsequently reported in this article. This study was undertaken in part to ascertain the relationships among various physical, intellectual, social, and emotional measures among children of low, average, and high learning ability but of the same chronological age.

☞ Measures and Children

The measures secured on each child, starting in 1956-1957 and continued annually through 1958-1959 are as follows:

1. Height to the nearest $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, obtained with a standard rule
2. Weight to the nearest $\frac{1}{8}$ pound, obtained with a standard beam scale

¹ The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

REPRINTED FROM *EDUCATION*, 80, 3 (NOVEMBER 1959), 167-171, BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR.

3. Strength of grip to the nearest 1/10 kilogram, obtained with a Stoelting dynamo meter
4. Number of permanent teeth, counted by a practicing dentist
5. Bone development of the hand and wrist to the nearest month, obtained by X-ray and read by two radiologists
6. I.Q. score, using the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children
7. Reading achievement, California Test, Form AA, 1950, to the nearest month
8. Arithmetic achievement, California Test, Form AA, 1950, to the nearest month
9. Language achievement, California Test, Form AA, 1950, to the nearest month
10. Chronological age to the nearest month
11. Emotional adjustment, rated from 0, poor, to 10, excellent, by clinical or school psychologists using the Rorschach, three cards from the Thematic Apperception Test, one Figure Drawing, and a clinical interview
12. Achievement in relation to capacity, rated by the psychologists from 0, considerable underachievement, to 10, considerable overachievement, with WISC I.Q. used as the primary criterion of capacity
13. Integration of self-concept, rated by the psychologists from 0, poorly integrated, to 10, well integrated
14. Expression of emotion, rated by the psychologists from 0, highly introverted, to 10, highly extroverted
15. Behavior pattern, rated by the psychologists from 0, highly withdrawing, to 10, highly aggressive
16. The child's estimate of his own learning abilities, rated by the psychologists from 0, greatly underestimated, to 10, greatly overestimated
17. Sociability as ascertained by administering sociometric tests

The first ten measures except the I.Q. were secured on each child within a four-week period during the month of October of each school year; the last seven and the I.Q. were secured during the next five months of the school year.

The children included twenty boys and twenty girls of low intelligence (WISC I.Q.'s 56-81), twenty boys and twenty girls of average intelligence (WISC I.Q.'s 90-110), and twenty boys and twenty girls of high intelligence (WISC I.Q.'s 120-146). The children of average and high intelligence were enrolled in regular heterogeneous classes in Madison, Wisconsin. The children with low I.Q.'s were enrolled in special classes for educable mentally retarded children in Madison and Milwaukee. Excluded from the study were children with low I.Q.'s who exhibited a second severe handicap, as of vision, or definite organic symptoms of retardation, such as mongolism.

All children had birthdates between September 15, 1947, and December 15, 1948. Thus, chronological age was held constant for the three I.Q. levels, and no average- or high-I.Q. child was included who had spent more or less than five calendar years in completing the first five grades of the elementary school. The mean age of the children was 101 months as of October 15, 1956; 113 months as of October 15, 1957; and 125 months as of October 15, 1958. October 15 was the midpoint in time for securing the annual physical and achievement measures.

Results

Space does not permit the inclusion of the lengthy tables,² showing raw scores, correlations, analyses of variance and covariance, and factor analysis. Also, only the results through the 1957-1958 year are given. These main results are now presented.

1. The weight, number of permanent teeth, and carpal age of the three I.Q. groups is the same. That is, the high-I.Q. group is neither heavier nor lighter; has neither more nor less permanent teeth; is neither more advanced nor more retarded in total anatomical development (carpal age) than is either of the other two groups. One could have inferred nothing about the learning abilities of the particular children being studied on the basis of weight, number of permanent teeth, and carpal age.

2. The high-I.Q. children are slightly taller than those of average and low intelligence; however, the overlap in height among the three I.Q. groups is far greater than the small but statistically significant difference between the high and the other two groups. The school should probably not consider height when attempting to identify children of low and high learning ability.

3. A marked difference is found in strength of grip among the three I.Q. groups. The high-I.Q. children are stronger than either the average or low, and the average are considerably stronger than the low. Strength of grip is the only measure of vitality in the present study. It appears that the high-I.Q. children have far greater vitality than do the low-I.Q. children. In addition, it appears that both on a physical task and probably also on a mental task, the high-I.Q. child has not only more energy to bring to bear on the task but also is able to concentrate his total energy

² The tables presenting all the data of this research are included in the official report to the U. S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

more efficiently on a particular task. While there is some overlap in strength among the three I.Q. groups, the difference in strength among the three groups is almost as great as is the difference among the three groups in arithmetic achievement. It is possible that other measures of vitality along with strength of grip would prove useful in identifying children of inferior and superior learning abilities.

4. In tested reading, arithmetic, and language achievements, the high-I.Q. group is distinctly superior and the low-I.Q. group is distinctly inferior. There is no overlap in tested reading achievement between the low- and average-I.Q. children. There is considerable overlap of scores between the average and the high in both reading and arithmetic, and most overlap occurs in arithmetic. The high-I.Q. children are not so far advanced above the average in arithmetic as they are in reading.

5. As based upon the psychologists' ratings (variables 11 to 16 reported previously), no difference among the three I.Q. groups is significant at the .01 level for the following traits: emotional adjustment, achievement in relation to capacity, integration of self-concept, expression of emotion, behavior pattern, and the child's estimate of his own ability. At the .02 level, however, the sixty girls have better integration of self-concept and give a higher estimate of their own abilities than do boys.

The incidence of emotional maladjustment, however, is quite high in all three I.Q. groups, with some quite severely disturbed individuals being found in all three I.Q. groups. This result must be interpreted in light of the low-I.Q. children being enrolled in special classes for the educable mentally retarded and their having no second severe handicap. Were these low-I.Q. children to be enrolled in regular heterogeneous classes, it is entirely possible that their emotional adjustment would be much poorer in relation to that of the children of average and high intelligence. Further, though there is no difference in integration of self-concept as based on the psychologists' ratings, informal observation leads to the conclusion that the self-concepts of the low-I.Q. are less well differentiated than those of the average- and high-I.Q. children.

In another investigation of children in regular heterogeneous third- and fifth-grade classes, it was found that the low-achievers with a mean I.Q. around 100 were not so well adjusted emotionally as were the high-achievers, based on teacher estimates. In addition, the low-achievers had a higher incidence of boys and a higher incidence of children from lower socio-economic status. In the present study also, though not significantly different from other groups, boys of average intelligence in regular heter-

ogeneous classrooms are found to have poorer emotional adjustment and lower achievement than the average I.Q. girls in the same classrooms.

6. There is no difference in sociability among the three groups as measured by sociometric tests. Differences in preference for friends of the same sex are far greater among fourth-grade children than are differences based upon I.Q. For example, girls choose other girls, regardless of I.Q., to a much greater extent than they choose boys, and the same holds for boys. Based upon many informal observations of the children in the classrooms in which they were enrolled, it appears that the special classes for the educable mentally retarded have an environment which encourages friendly and helpful relationships among children to a higher extent than do the regular classes for the average- and high-I.Q. children.

7. For the combined group of sixty boys and sixty girls, there is a tendency for variability in physical growth within the child (split growth) to be accompanied by low achievement. Boys and girls who are growing quite consistently in height, weight, strength of grip, and bone development achieve slightly higher than do those who are not growing consistently in all areas.

8. For the combined group of sixty boys and sixty girls, there is a tendency for variability in physical growth within the child (split growth) to be accompanied by emotional disturbance. No cause of the tendency towards split growth has been ascertained. It is possible that with further analysis it may be found that split growth in the readily observed characteristics—height, weight, or strength—may be associated with the lower achievement and poorer emotional adjustment, or there possibly may be some sort of physiological or chemical imbalance leading to the variable pattern of physical growth, the lower achievement, and the tendency toward emotional disturbance.

9. There is no difference among the three I.Q. groups in the within-child variability in reading, arithmetic, and language. The children in the low-I.Q. group tend to be high in one achievement area and low in another to the same extent as do the average- and high-I.Q. children. If three different teachers had these three groups of forty children, each teacher would have an equally difficult or equally easy time in providing reading, arithmetic, or language materials to suit the needs of each child within the groups of forty.

10. There is no difference in the variability of the three I.Q. groups in any area of achievement. The forty low-I.Q. children as a group are just as variable in reading achievements as are the forty average- and the forty

high-I.Q. children. Again, if three teachers had the three I.Q. groups of forty pupils, the teacher of the low-I.Q. children would need to have as wide a range of reading materials to meet the needs of her group as would the teacher of the high-I.Q. children.

11. The following clusters of measures correlate positively and significantly with each other: (a) height, weight, strength of grip, and carpal age; (b) strength of grip, I.Q., reading achievement, arithmetic achievement, and language achievement; (c) emotional adjustment, achievement in relation to capacity, and integration of self-concept; (d) expression of emotion, pattern of emotional behavior, and the child's estimate of his own abilities. Number of permanent teeth was found not to correlate significantly with any other variable. In addition, there are few positive and significant correlations between variables in any of the two groups above. For example, carpal age and weight do not correlate significantly with any measures other than the physical measures. Factor analyses of the correlation matrices from 1957-1958 and from 1958-1959 will be made to ascertain the extent to which growth in the physical, intellectual, and emotional areas may be a general factor or specific factors. At the present time the researcher doubts that there is a general growth factor with children of this age. The correlations thus far suggest that there are quite specific physical, intellectual, and emotional growth factors.

The researcher believes that the findings concerning the average- and high-I.Q. children will hold for other samples of children drawn by the same criteria in many cities of the United States. There is no basis for assuming that the regular heterogeneous classes from which the average- and high-I.Q. children were drawn differ greatly from other classes in similar cities where the mean I.Q. of the child population in the elementary school is around 108. The findings pertaining to the low-I.Q. children might not hold for institutionalized low-I.Q. children, for low-I.Q. children with a second severe handicap, or for low-I.Q. children remaining with average- and high-I.Q. children in regular heterogeneous classrooms. In addition, the results reported for these children at a mean age of 101 months in October, 1956, and 113 months in October, 1957, might not hold for these same children four years from now. Finally, the personality ratings were made by experienced clinical and school psychologists, using projective methods. These techniques and instruments are tools of their professional work, and their independent ratings of children were found reliable through correlation techniques. It is possible

that, had group tests of personality been used, the results would have been different. The researcher, however, assumes that other well-prepared, experienced school and clinical psychologists would have secured approximately the same ratings on these children.

Summary

Height, weight, number of permanent teeth, carpal age, sociability or friendliness, emotional adjustment, achievement in relation to capacity, integration of self-concept, manner of expressing emotion, behavior pattern, and the child's estimate of own learning abilities as defined in this study are of little if any value in helping the teacher identify pupils of superior learning ability at a mean age of 113 months or of normally fourth-grade age. Individual I.Q. test results, achievement test results, and strength of grip or vitality are exceedingly useful.

Identifying the Insecure Child:

III. The Use of Children's Drawings

WILLIAM E. MARTIN

This study attempted to answer three questions: (a) Do children express their feelings of security or insecurity in their drawings? (b) Can such graphic expression be described and measured? (c) Can the drawings of secure children thus be distinguished from those of insecure children?

In answering these questions, we used the following procedure: We first identified the most secure and most insecure children in three different groups, using methods which did not involve a consideration of their drawings. Then we obtained a sample drawing from each child so identified. Next we procured ratings of pertinent characteristics in each drawing. Finally, we compared the ratings of drawings of secure with those of drawings of insecure children.

Identifying Secure and Insecure Children

We began with a total of 75 children: 24 kindergarten, 25 Grade 1 and 26 Grade 2 children in a University laboratory school. The number of boys and girls in each group was approximately the same. The mean chronological age and intelligence quotient, as derived from the 1937 Revision of the Stanford-Binet, for each group respectively, were as follows: 5.9, 123; 6.7, 132; 7.9, 125. The socio-economic status may be considered high in view of the fact that most of the fathers were employed in professional or managerial activities or were graduate students in the University.

REPRINTED FROM *THE JOURNAL OF GENETIC PSYCHOLOGY*, 86, (JUNE 1955), 327-338, BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR. THIS RESEARCH WAS SUPPORTED BY A GRANT FROM THE BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

We first administered to each child a revised form of the Wolff Security Test.[2] This instrument consists of nine pairs of drawings of situations involving children. For each pair the child is asked which one he would rather be. The child who, by reason of his choices, seems to be apprehensive, timid, inactive, and socially retiring is identified as being relatively insecure. On the other hand, the child whose preferences indicate that he is bold, outgoing, active, and socially participant, is considered relatively secure. We expressed the results of this test as the number of "insecure" responses. The range of possible scores was from 0 to 9.

We then asked each member of the teaching staff to rate each child with whom they were acquainted on the Prichard-Ojemann Behavior Rating Scale.[4] This scale describes six kinds of behavior: (a) voluntary withdrawal from group; (b) non-acceptance by group; (c) bidding for attention of adults; (d) crying; (e) apprehensiveness; and (f) hyperactivity. Prichard and Ojemann reported that the frequency of each of these behaviors as rated on a five-point scale differentiated between children nominated as secure and those nominated as insecure by their teachers. We obtained at least nine independent ratings on this scale for each of the children in our sample. We expressed the results in the form of an average score for each child for the total scale. The range of possible scores was from 6, the most insecure score, to 30, the most secure score.

On a later occasion, we asked our raters to nominate from each group the three children they considered most secure and the three children they considered most insecure. The result for each child was simply the number of nominations of each kind he received.

Originally, our hope was that the results obtained from these three methods of identifying secure and insecure children would agree to such an extent that we could pool them and thus have one group of secure and one group of insecure children at each age level. Unfortunately, as indicated in an earlier report[2], there was no such agreement in the results. We arrived, therefore, at this point in the study with six, rather than two, groups at each age level: a group of secure children and a group of insecure children as identified by each of the three methods.

In order to define these groups exactly, it was of course necessary to establish arbitrarily cutting points for each distribution of scores. On the Wolff Security Test, we placed a child with a score of 5 or more in the insecure group and one with a score of 0 or 1 in the secure group. On the Prichard-Ojemann Behavior Rating Scale, we defined a child who had a score of 20 or less as insecure and one who had a score of 26 or more as se-

cure. Finally, we chose for consideration any child with three or more nominations as most insecure or three or more nominations as most secure.

After applying these cutting points, 54 of the original 75 children remained, all of them appearing in at least one of the criterion groups, many of them appearing in more than one. For example, one child was in the "secure" groups as identified by behavior ratings and by teachers'

TABLE 1

Sex, Chronological Age (CA), Mental Age (MA), Intelligence Quotient (IQ), Wolff Security Test Score (W), Prichard-Ojemann Behavior Rating Scale Score (P) and Number of Teachers' Nominations as Most Secure (TS) and Most Insecure (TI)

Group	Child No.	Sex	CA	MA ^a	IQ	W ^b	R ^c	TS	TI
Kindergarten									
	1	F	5.6	6.8	120	2	26.7	2	0
	2	M	5.7	6.8	120	1	22.5	0	0
	3	F	5.4	7.4	136	1	26.2	4	0
	4	F	5.6	7.8	140	2	25.0	5	0
	5	M	5.5	7.2	130	1	22.8	3	0
	6	F	5.8	6.9	118	2	17.6	0	5
	7	M	6.1	6.2	101	1	20.7	0	4
	8	M	6.2	6.0	96	5	19.2	0	4
	9	F	6.3	7.0	110	2	26.5	2	0
	10	M	5.8	7.2	122	4	15.9	0	7
	11	M	5.8	8.2	140	5	21.1	0	0
First Grade									
	21	F	6.4	8.0	125	1	19.1	0	6
	22	M	6.9	9.9	143	3	26.8	5	0
	23	M	7.1	11.7	165	1	22.8	1	0
	24	M	6.9	9.6	139	1	25.0	1	0
	25	F	7.0	8.2	116	6	25.6	1	1
	26	F	7.1	9.2	129	1	26.6	6	0
	27	M	6.8	10.9	160	1	27.3	1	0
	28	F	6.8	7.8	115	2	19.7	0	5
	29	F	6.9	9.9	143	3	27.1	2	0
	30	M	6.7	7.8	117	7	20.0	0	4
	31	M	6.6	7.3	111	3	19.3	0	5
Second Grade									
	41	M	7.6	8.1	107	1	27.9	6	0
	42	F	8.7	10.8	125	6	22.9	0	0
	43	F	8.3	11.2	135	6	26.0	1	0
	44	M	7.7	9.7	126	2	27.2	1	0
	45	M	7.7	9.7	126	2	13.9	0	6
	46	M	7.6	10.0	132	0	17.0	0	2
	47	F	7.9	9.8	123	7	18.3	0	1
	48	F	7.3	12.5	170	3	26.8	3	0
	49	M	7.9	9.6	121	1	26.9	3	0

^a 1937 Revision of the Stanford-Binet.

^b The number of "insecure" responses.

^c The most "secure" score is 30; the least "secure" score is 6.

nominations but in the "insecure" group as identified by the Wolff Security Test.

Circumstances were such that we were able to obtain drawings from only 31 of these children, selected at random from the total possible number of 54. Table 1 contains the pertinent data for each of these subjects, 11 kindergarten children, 11 first graders, and 9 second graders. Table 2 shows how these subjects were distributed in the various criterion groups.

TABLE 2 Insecure and Secure Subjects According to Each of Three Criterion Measures

CRITERION Sub-group	WOLFF SECURITY TEST		PRICHARD-OJEMANN BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE		TEACHERS' NOMINATIONS	
	Insecure No.	Secure No.	Insecure No.	Secure No.	Insecure No.	Secure No.
Kindergarten	8	2	6	1	6	3
	11	3	8	3	7	4
		5	10	9	8	5
		7			10	
First Grade	25	21	21	22	21	22
	30	23	28	26	28	26
		24	30	27	30	
		26	31	29	31	
		27				
Second Grade	42	41	45	41	45	41
	43	46	46	43		48
	47	49	47	44		49
				48		
				49		
N	7	12	10	12	9	8

☞ Obtaining the Drawings

In order to obtain the sample drawings, we invited each child to our office, seated him at a small table, provided him with a black crayon and a piece of manila drawing paper, 12 × 9 inches in size, and suggested that he draw us a picture of his family. He received no further instructions and was left to his own devices until he finished the drawing. We carefully avoided watching the artist at work, giving our attention to other activities during the period of production. Our procedure failed only in the case of one second-grade girl who felt that "It" was all very silly.

Rating the Drawings

Wolff [5] has suggested certain graphic characteristics as expressive of a child's feelings of security and insecurity. We selected 11 of these for consideration in our sample of drawings and described them in such a way that their presence would be evidence of security and their absence evidence of insecurity, assuming, for the moment, the validity of the Wolff suggestions. The terms below will indicate briefly the nature of these graphic characteristics:

In the drawing as a whole:

1. Symmetry
2. Determination of strokes
3. Continuity of strokes
4. Pressure of strokes
5. Expansiveness
6. Degree to which graphic elements are centered

Individual figures in the drawing:

7. Symmetry
8. Sharpness and distinctness of features
9. Clarity of position of natural features
10. Expansiveness
11. Activity

For each drawing, a rater judged the amount of each characteristic he found to exist on a five-point scale: very much, much, some, little, very little. He could indicate his rating at any point on a given line corresponding to a given characteristic. Afterwards we further subdivided the line into 10 equal parts and assigned values ranging from 1 (at the "very little" end of the scale) to 11 (at the "very much" end of the scale).

The raters were 13 university juniors and seniors, 8 males and 5 females, all majoring in art. They accepted the drawings as art products and nothing else; they did not know of our concern with the graphic expression of personality.

Our board of judges rated the art products in groups: all five-year-old drawings or all first-grade drawings or all second-grade drawings. In order to eliminate the effects of practice and fatigue, we adopted this procedure: (a) The judges were divided into two approximately equal groups, Group A and Group B; b) Group A first rated the kindergarten

drawings, then the first-grade and finally the second-grade drawings, while Group *B* undertook their ratings in the reverse order; (c) No judge rated the characteristics in the same order as any other judge; (d) No judge rated the characteristics in the same order from one group of drawings to another.

TABLE 3 Means and Standard Deviations of Ratings of Thirteen Judges of Thirty-One Drawings on Each of Eleven Scales

Scale	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. Symmetry of drawing as a whole	6.8	1.3
2. Determination of strokes	7.0	1.3
3. Continuity of strokes	6.9	1.0
4. Pressure of strokes	6.8	1.6
5. Expansiveness of drawing as a whole	6.9	1.7
6. Degree to which graphic elements are centered in the drawing as a whole	6.7	1.1
7. Symmetry of individual figures in the drawing	7.0	1.1
8. Sharpness and distinctiveness of features of individual figures in the drawing	6.3	1.5
9. Clarity of position of natural features of individual figures in the drawing	6.3	1.6
10. Expansiveness of individual figures in the drawing	6.5	1.3
11. Activity of individual figures in the drawing	5.6	1.6

Martin and Damrin[3] have already presented a detailed analysis of these ratings on the basis of which they concluded that they were "highly reliable." Since they also found no significant differences among the means of the ratings on any scale for the three age groups, it is possible to ignore the factor of age in the present report. Table 3 gives the means and standard deviations of the ratings of these 13 judges on the total collection of drawings.

☞ Comparing the Drawings of Secure and Insecure Children

In Table 4 are the means and the standard errors of the means of the ratings on each scale for the groups of insecure and secure children as identified by three different methods. The use of the "*t*" test discloses but one significant difference between means, that between secure and insecure children as identified by behavior ratings on Scale 10, Expansiveness of Individual Figures. In this case, the value of "*t*" is 2.18, which is

TABLE 4 Means and Standard Errors of Means of Ratings of Thirteen Judges on Each of Eleven Scales of Drawings of Children Classified as Secure or Insecure

CRITERION Sub-group N	WOLFF SECURITY TEST				PRICHARD-OJEMANN BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE				TEACHERS' NOMINATIONS			
	Insecure 7		Secure 12		Insecure 10		Secure 12		Insecure 9		Secure 8	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
1	7.04	.62	6.28	.30	6.74	.48	6.35	.36	6.75	.46	7.09	.48
2	7.03	.31	6.41	.37	6.59	.47	7.54	.32	6.63	.45	7.19	.36
3	6.87	.28	6.68	.32	6.21	.38	7.12	.27	6.40	.34	7.10	.23
4	6.69	.66	6.30	.42	6.52	.58	7.35	.45	6.29	.52	7.05	.42
5	7.51	.90	6.72	.48	7.18	.53	6.10	.53	6.91	.54	6.69	.59
6	7.03	.52	6.42	.31	6.40	.38	6.56	.33	6.34	.37	7.16	.36
7	6.60	.41	6.67	.33	7.00	.28	7.33	.27	6.95	.26	7.35	.35
8	6.50	.71	5.40	.31	6.06	.51	6.70	.32	5.82	.48	6.26	.58
9	6.59	.77	5.74	.39	5.74	.46	6.88	.39	5.62	.37	6.53	.57
10	6.71	.73	6.10	.30	6.91	.40	5.82	.30	6.69	.34	6.41	.34
11	5.47	.84	6.18	.49	5.16	.39	5.14	.50	4.81	.39	5.83	.45

significant at the five per cent level. Unfortunately, even this one difference is contrary to expectation, since it is the insecure rather than the secure group which showed the greater expansiveness.

Discussion of Some Individual Drawings

Despite these negative findings, an examination of some of the drawings may be of interest. Table 5 contains the mean ratings expressed as *T*-scores on the drawings of five of the children in our sample.

TABLE 5 Mean Ratings Expressed as Standard Scores of Thirteen Judges on Each of Eleven Scales of Drawings of Selected Children

CHILD NO.	3		30		5		47		7	
Scale	Mean rating	<i>T</i>	Mean rating	<i>T</i>	Mean rating	<i>T</i>	Mean rating	<i>T</i>	Mean rating	<i>T</i>
1	6.2	45	7.2	53	7.8	58	8.2	61	6.6	48
2	7.9	57	7.0	50	5.5	38	7.9	57	6.5	46
3	7.1	52	6.6	47	6.5	46	6.9	50	6.6	47
4	8.5	61	7.9	57	5.5	42	9.5	67	6.1	46
5	5.2	40	9.2	64	6.5	48	9.3	64	5.9	44
6	5.4	38	6.9	52	7.2	55	7.8	60	6.1	45
7	7.6	55	6.1	42	5.7	38	8.1	60	6.8	48
8	6.0	48	6.6	52	3.2	29	8.5	65	4.8	40
9	6.9	54	6.2	49	3.8	34	8.2	62	5.2	43
10	5.3	41	7.8	60	6.4	49	9.1	70	5.4	42
11	6.1	53	5.6	50	5.8	51	7.2	60	3.7	38
Mean		50		52		44		62		44

The three criterion measures agreed in identifying Child No. 3 as a secure child. Yet the judges' ratings of her drawing (Figure 1) did not confirm this identification. Only in Pressure and Determination of Strokes (Scales 2 and 4) were the ratings conspicuously above the mean. In Expansiveness and Centering of Graphic Elements (Scales 5, 6, and 10), the ratings were definitely below the mean. For all scales, the average *T*-score was 50. Whatever feelings of security characterized this child, she did not seem to express them in the drawing of her family.

In Child No. 30, we have a boy who was placed in the insecure category according to all three criteria. Yet, when we look at his drawing (Figure 2) and the ratings of it, we again find no confirmation of this placement. He obtained a relatively low rating on Symmetry of Individual Figures (Scale 7) but relatively high ratings on Pressure of Strokes and Expan-



FIGURE 1 Drawing of Child No. 3



FIGURE 2 Drawing of Child No. 30

siveness (Scales 4, 5, and 10). On the remaining scales, the ratings were more often above than below the average. His mean *T*-score was 52.

The drawing of Child No. 5 (Figure 3) received an average rating of 44. In general, the judges found an absence of those characteristics which presumably denote feelings of security, the only exceptions being Symmetry of the Drawing as a Whole (Scale 1) and possibly Centering of Graphic Elements (Scale 6). Yet, according to the Wolff Security Test and teachers' nominations, this boy was identified as a secure child.

In the case of Child No. 47 (Figure 4) we have a drawing which received uniformly high ratings, as indicated by a mean *T*-score of 62. In fact, not a single rating fell below the mean for the total group. We would conclude, from the drawing alone, that we were dealing with a secure child. But, in terms of scores on the Wolff Security Test and on the Prichard-Ojemann Behavior Rating Scale, this girl was a member of our insecure group.

As a final example, there is the drawing of Child No. 7 (Figure 5). All ratings given this drawing were below the average for the group, implying an insecure child. It is true that four different teachers nominated him as one of the three most insecure children in his group. But,

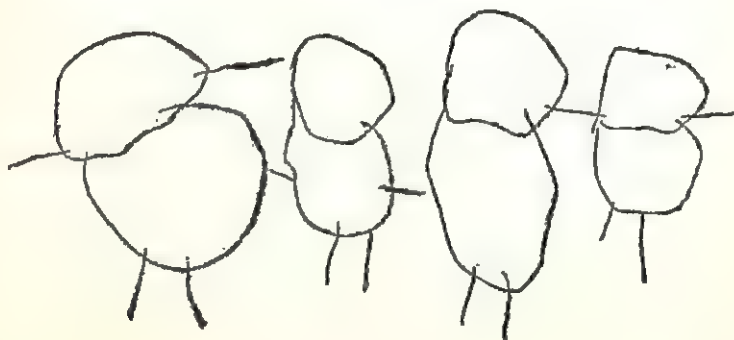


FIGURE 3 Drawing of Child No. 5



FIGURE 4 Drawing of Child No. 47

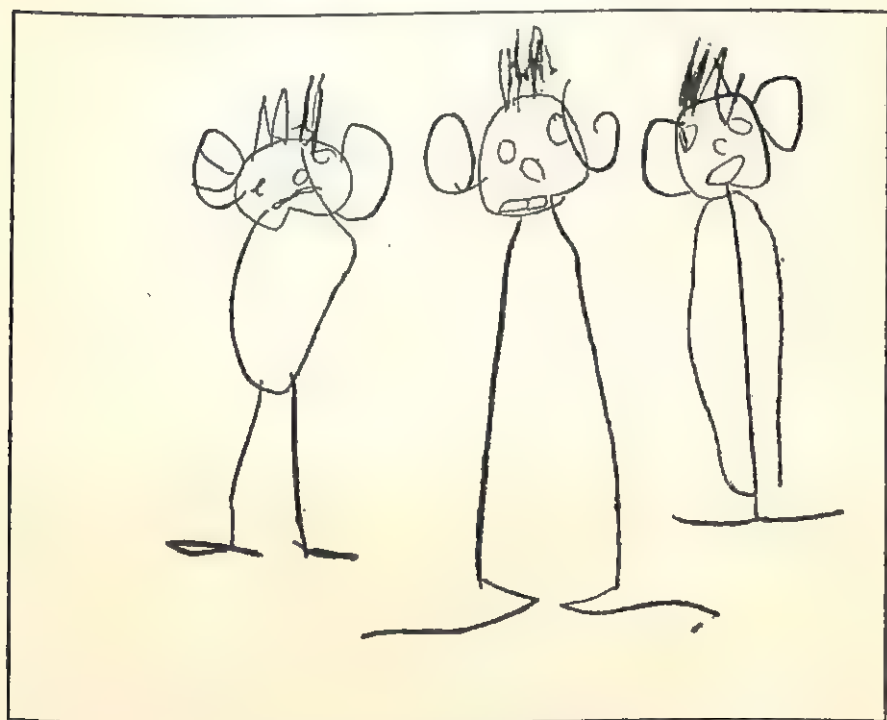


FIGURE 5 Drawing of Child No. 7

on the Wolff Security Test, he gave but one insecure response out of a possible nine. Perhaps, this was a case in which the secure responses were reactions to or compensations for feelings of insecurity.

The results reported in detail for these five drawings are representative of those for the total sample. They furnish no basis for concluding that drawings of insecure children differ from those of secure children.

☞ Limitations in the Present Study

It is only fair to point out certain recognized limitations in the present study. The sample of children was inadequate on at least two counts. For one thing, it was too small. However, since Wolff [5] does not give the number of children which he studied, we cannot say which of the two studies should be given the greater weight on this factor. Our sample was also too homogeneous with respect to intelligence and socio-economic status, being highly selected with respect to both factors.

In previous papers [1,2] we have expressed dissatisfaction with our means of identifying secure and insecure children. Perhaps, clinical methods would improve the selection and definition of our groups.

Moreover, we consider the sample of drawings far from adequate, since we obtained only one drawing from each child. Evidence concerning the amount of intra-individual variation in expressive content of drawings is lacking, but it is reasonable to assume the existence of some.

Finally, we recognize that the ratings of the drawings might be considered inadequate in some respects. In the attempt to make the judgments as objective and reliable as possible, we may have lost something in the drawings. Wolff implies that such judgments are an art rather than a science [5, pp. 222-223] and then demonstrates his own artistry in the "blind" analyses of children from their drawings. Whether or not judgments as art can be investigated by acceptable scientific methods is a moot point. Perhaps, we could have supplemented our procedures by asking clinical psychologists to determine from an inspection of a drawing whether the artist was secure or insecure and thus obtained more reassuring results. Only further study can settle this matter.

☞ Summary

This study investigated the possibility of identifying the insecure child through an analysis of the expressive content in his drawings. Within the

limitations of the study as stated, we must conclude that characteristics which Wolff has suggested to be expressive of feelings of security do not differentiate between the drawings of secure and insecure children. This conclusion holds, ironically, even when the subjects are identified as secure or insecure by means of a screening device originated by Wolff himself.

REFERENCES

1. William E. Martin, "Identifying the Insecure Child: I. The Wolff Security Test," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 78 (1951), 217-232.
2. ———, "Identifying the Insecure Child: II. The Validity of Some Suggested Methods," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 80 (1952), 25-33.
3. ——— and D.E. Damrin, "An Analysis of the Reliability and Factorial Composition of Ratings of Children's Drawings," *Child Development*, 22 (1951), 133-144.
4. E. Prichard and R.H. Ojemann, "An Approach to the Measurement of Insecurity," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 10 (1941), 114-118.
5. W. Wolff, *The Personality of the Preschool Child* (New York: Grune & Stratton, 1946).

☞ Situational Play Therapy with Normal Children

CLARK E. MOUSTAKAS

In the past two decades much clinical insight has been derived from studying the inner world of the disturbed child. Various theories and techniques of play therapy have been presented and evaluated by psychotherapists, and analytical and neoanalytical case studies, with complete interpretations, have appeared regularly and increasingly.

Client-centered recordings of nondirective play therapy sessions have dramatically portrayed the process of attitudinal reorganization in young children. Almost all the children described in these reports have had some degree of personal and social maladjustment, fixated psychosexual paths, or inadequate self-concepts.

The present study was concerned with normal children who were faced with a disturbing new family experience which they perceived as threatening to themselves, and who were given an opportunity to resolve their feelings in situational play therapy sessions. In the two cases here described in some detail both children were faced with one of the commonest crises of childhood, the arrival of a new baby in the family. Of a number of instances in which play therapy sessions were equally effective, these two were selected as providing interesting and clear-cut illustrations of the method.

☞ The New Baby Crisis

Normal children who experience such catastrophes as fires and floods, or who have accidents or illnesses, or are subjected to such family crises

REPRINTED FROM *JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY*, 15 (1951), 225-230, BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR.

as divorce and death, often show confusion, hostility, uncontrollable aggression, hate, and anxiety. The arrival of a new baby in the family is one of the commonest sources of such a disturbance in the child's behavior. To all children such an event brings a period of stress, for however stable, well organized, and rooted in positive emotions the family relationships may be, the arrival of a new family member requires some modification of role in each person in the family. Some family disorganization may result, at least temporarily, and the older child or children are often faced with a difficult adjustment to the new situation.

For neither of the two children, Tommy and Susan, whose play therapy sessions are reported was the arrival of a new baby a surprise. Both had been informed of the coming event two or three months in advance, and both had expressed pleasure in the prospect.

The Case of Tommy

Tommy, four years old, had been rated as fairly well adjusted both personally and socially by his nursery school teacher, the nursery school director, and the psychologist. His relations with other nursery school children were satisfactory, he came to school happily, and he talked with pride of his home and parents. His parents, in turn, talked of him with pleasure and pride and regarded him as a happy, secure, confident child who easily accepted limits and responsibilities.

When Tommy was four and one-half, an adopted girl of thirteen was suddenly brought into the home, and three months later his mother gave birth to a daughter. During this period Tommy's behavior showed a radical change, both at school and at home. At school he became sulky, refused to accept even simple, clear, and reasonable limits, showed a tendency to retreat from child groups whenever things did not go his way, and often withdrew into long sessions of solitary play. At home he became fidgety at mealtimes, refused to eat foods that he had accepted before, cried, attempted to destroy the family record player, and often appeared ill-tempered and irritable. His mother, after attempting to deal with the situation by explanations and supports of many kinds, requested that he be given play therapy.

Three play sessions were conducted with Tommy. During the first he played with airplanes and trucks the entire time and was relatively quiet. In the second session Tommy appeared to focus on his attitudes about himself and what the two new members of the family would mean in

terms of his role. He perceived them as potential threats, but once he had recognized these feelings and they had been accepted and clarified, he could accept his siblings and share with them his emotional and material possessions, and see his altered role as one that did not threaten his real self. A transcript of this session from the tape recording follows.

SECOND PLAY SESSION WITH TOMMY

•T. You can use these things in any way that you want, Tommy.

†C. You know what? I could make a little castle out of that. [Indicates sand in sandbox.]

T. You could make a castle.

C. These are two boats. Look.

T. Mm-hm.

C. You know what kind? This one is a ship and this one is a ferry.

T. One's a ship and one's a ferry.

C. This is the ocean. [Points to sand.] This is the way that they use them in New Mexico.

T. In New Mexico, they use them like that.

C. Now do you know what we have to do? We have to get some water and smooth it. [Refers to sand.] You know what I can do? I can make an ocean liner and put it in the sand.

T. You can do that.

C. Then this can be the dock. [Points to hill of sand.] Then the ocean liner can go on it. It can go right on the hill.

T. Mm-hm.

C. There is just room for two boats to be on it. There. Now I'll make another boat. This can be the parking space. [Points to spot in the sand.] See? This is a great big parking lot for it.

T. A great big one.

C. See? This is where the little boat goes. He goes way up there. There's a parking lot for the big boat and one for the little boat. We have to do this over at the dock. Toot, toot, toot go the boats. Look where this boat has to go. He goes to get the sand. I'm putting it right in.

T. You're putting it right inside.

C. I'm pretending this is a ship. This is where they really go. Right over here. [Points to spot in sand.]

T. That's really the place for them to go.

C. This is the stuff that they carry into the dock. [Sand.] Look what he has to do. He's going to bury this whole big boat.

T. He'll bury the whole big boat.

C. See? I can bury him.

T. You're really burying him.

C. So no one will ever find him again.

• T, Therapist. † C, Child.

T. He will be lost for good.

C. He'll be lost for good. It can't get out now. You see, this is the little boat's dock and no one ever goes in this dock. Because that's his dock.

T. Just his.

C. You know what he's going to do? He's going to put sand and water on this boat. [Points to big boat which he has taken out of sand.] Then he'll clean it up.

T. He'll make it clean.

C. Hi, Joe. Howdy. You see, this big one that comes along is his brother. You see, these two boats are brother boats.

T. One is the brother of the other one.

C. Yeah. One is the brother of the other one. Hey! Who messed my dock up? "Well, I did," says the big boat. See? He has some sand in him. He carries people in his boat, and this one has sand in his, too.

T. They both have sand.

C. You know what? They dump out the sand there. He [little boat] scrubs his boat off. Then he [big boat] scrubs his boat off. Both of them go. You know where they're going now? In the . . . in the brink the ship goes first [big boat]. Say, what do you know, Joe? I have to make another dock for this boat [a tiny boat].

T. Another dock for another boat.

C. Yeah. Oh, I know a nice dock. What do you know, Joe? He'll be lost forever. What do you suppose I'll have to do? Hey! What's the matter with my garage? That's what it will be. What do you know, Joe?

T. What do you know?

C. This is the littlest boat. I have to build so many docks around here.

T. So many docks you have to build.

C. Yes, and all these are brothers. This is the best one [picks up middle boat], because, look. He can carry more sand than the other ones.

T. He's the best one of all.

C. You know what? You know what I have to do? See this boat here? That's the littlest one, and this one is the biggest one, and see, those are brothers. These two are brothers and these two are brothers.

T. They're all brothers.

C. Yes. And they all have some docks, but he [middle boat] has the coziest one.

T. He has the nicest, coziest one.

C. And this [big boat] and this [little boat] each have one, but he [middle boat] can carry nice soft dirt for people to the lake. We better not use this boat [tiny boat]. You know, this is the guy who stands and has to watch all of these things. [Picks up policeman figure and gestures toward boats.] And this one. You know what? I'm pretending that this is an oil place and that's where the boats get their power. You know, they don't have any power when they start off. They come around and after awhile they put their boats in this space where they can get power.

T. That's what they do.

C. I know what I'm doing. You know what I'm pretending? This is all the family, the whole family, the whole family. This is the family.

T. You're pretending it's the whole family.

C. Yeah. I have to. Well, what do you know? What do you know, Joe? What do you know, Joe? Linga, linga, linga, linga, linga, linga. Hey! I'm pretending. You see these cowboys? They're the guards.

T. They are the guards, huh?

C. All of them. They're the guards of these garages.

T. They guard them.

C. They guard them. There's the guard. You see, if anyone comes around to steal the boats . . . well, they'll shoot them.

T. They shoot anyone who tries to steal the boats.

C. There's another guard. He's a husky one. Look, there's sand in this boat [middle one]. He carries it well. Golly, he's stuck in a ditch, but he's cozy. Cozy, but him and him . . . no, really every three of them are the coziest.

T. Every three of them.

C. This is the best cowboy and he guards this boat [the middle boat]. Linga, linga, linga. You know what? They watch to see that no one steals anything. They watch the garages, too. One guard's in front of each garage.

T. One in front of each garage.

C. See, these are very lucky because they have guards. They're very lucky.

T. Very, very lucky because they have guards.

C. No one else has guards but them.

T. No one but them.

C. This guard watches this [big boat]. This guard watches this [middle boat]. And this guards this one [tiny boat]. This guy [middle boat] is lucky. He's lucky because he has the nicest house, the nicest house of all. He has the best house of all. He can just fit in right well. These [the other two boats] are lucky, too. They have power. They squeeze right in. He has power, too. He goes over and gets his power.

T. You have just a short while longer to play.

C. There he goes. See? He goes to his brother's place.

T. He's going right to his brother's place.

C. Hey, ring, ring! It's me. I'm your brother. It's all right. I was here before you, but come with me. Hey! Big boat and little boat say, "Please give me some power," and middle boat says, "O.K." Middle boat: "I'm going to get more power." Hey, Joe. Come on. I'll help you. We've got the best house in the world. We'll get some power. All we'll have to do is back right out and get it. We can get our power and gas easy. Linga, linga, linga. We can go now. When others come in, they'll be able to see that I built all this.

T. They'll see it right there where you built it.

After the third play session, which was very similar to the second, Tommy said he felt that he would not have to come back any more. He

then went to his mother, she reported, and said: "Look here, Mother. There are some things that are mine, really mine. They belong just to me, and there are other things that I can share and will gladly share." His mother responded: "Of course, Tommy. That's the way it will always be."

The nursery school staff and Tommy's parents reported that Tommy had once again become the affable, free, expressive child they had known before.

The Case of Susan

The nursery school staff described Susan, three years old, as a charming youngster whose winning smile and understanding ways had made her popular with both children and adults. Her mother had considered Susan's relations with her parents and an older sibling excellent. When Susan was three years three months, a new baby arrived in the family. Two days after the mother and the new baby daughter arrived home, Susan became babyish, immature, and whining at home. This behavior became evident in the nursery school as well. Susan's mother frantically telephoned the nursery school one day to ask whether something could be done to stop Susan's constant whining, which had annoyed everyone in the family. She could not understand how so wonderful and confident a child could have become a whimpering, clinging one in so short a time.

The nursery school staff referred Susan to the play therapist, who conducted three play sessions with her. During the first two sessions Susan appeared to project her negative and hostile feelings for the new baby onto the human-like balloon figure in the therapy room, throwing it on the floor, stepping on it, squeezing its head and face, and crushing it inside the vise. Once her feelings were recognized, accepted, and at least partly clarified, she proceeded in the last session to pick up the balloon figure, kiss it, toss it in the air, and dance around the room while she held it in her arms.

A transcript of recordings of the three sessions follows.

FIRST SESSION

T. You can use these in any way you like. [Mother starts to leave room, and *C* looks at her.]

C. No, you stay here for awhile.

**M.* Watch the watch. When this hand gets over here, I'll be back.

* *M.*, mother.

- C. O.K. I'll bounce two balls.
 T. Two at a time you did.
 M. I'll lay down the watch where you can watch it.
 C. O.K. . . . It's not ticking.
 M. Want me to put it on you? [Places watch on C's wrist.] Bye.
 T. You can just keep your eye on that watch.
 C. [Waves good-bye to mother.] Where's the baby?
 T. Where do you suppose the baby could be?
 C. Here? That's the baby. Lookit the big baby. This is a balloon head.
 Mr. Balloon Head. [Picks up a balloon in the form of a human figure. Squeezes balloon and cries, "Mommy, Mommy, Mommy."
 T. That's what it cries. Mommy, Mommy, Mommy.
 C. [Continues to squeeze balloon and cry, "Mommy, Mommy, Mommy."
 Looks at T and places balloon on table. Turns handle of vise.] What is it?
 T. You want to know what it could be. It can be anything you want it to be.
 C. A can opener.
 T. Is that what it is? A can opener?
 C. Lookit these soldiers. Are these cowboys or soldiers?
 T. What do they look like?
 C. Cowboys. See the cowboys. Those are all cowboys.
 T. Mm-hm.
 C. I'm gonna be a monkey.
 T. That's what you're going to be.
 C. [Puts on monkey mask.] Lookit me. I'm the monkey.
 T. Susan is the monkey.
 C. Now I'm gonna be a piggy. I'll say oink-oink. [Puts on pig mask.]
 Oink, oink, oink, oink, oink.
 T. The piggy goes oink, oink, oink.
 C. Oink, oink, oink, oink. [Takes mask off.] Now I'm gonna be a clown.
 This goes oink, oink, oink, too. Oink, oink.
 T. The clown goes oink, oink.
 C. Oink, oink, oink. [Laughs.] Now I'm gonna be a baby and drink from the bottle of water. Shall I?
 T. That's up to you.
 C. Should I sprinkle here? Here. Open your hand.
 T. You want to sprinkle in my hand.
 C. [Sprinkles water in T's hand.] Rub them together. [Drinks from the bottle and then replaces it on bench. Turns handle of vise again.] Now I have to can opener this. [Puts figure balloon into vise; it squeaks.] She doesn't want to be can opened.
 T. She doesn't?
 C. No. I heard my Mummy walking. Hey! It's almost up to here. This number right here. [Indicates number on wrist watch.] I hear her coming.
 T. You hear her coming.
 C. [Turns handle of vise. Shakes it back and forth. Looks at nursing bot-

ties. Again turns vise handle and looks out window. Picks up figure balloon and squeezes it; drops it and steps on it.] I'm gonna throw the ball. You kick it like that.

T. Mm-hm. That's what you do to it.

C. See what you do? Rocky-rocky the baby to sleep. Where's the baby? Where is she? Here's a mirror.

T. Mm-hm.

C. [Peers in mirror of dresser.] Tick-tick.

T. That's the way it goes.

C. Tick-tock. Tick-tock. There's the baby in there. [Points to doll house.] Baby walking upstairs. One, two, three, four, five. Into your beds. They're in their beds. Into your bed you go, bad girl. [Baby doll.] And this one is a big girl.

T. A big girl.

C. With a round head. Walk, walk, walk. Here's the daddy going to bed now. Walky, walky, walky. Right next to the girl. [Middle doll.]

T. Mm-hm.

C. And here's the mommy. Walky, walky, walky. Right next to the baby. [Undresses male doll.] I'm taking his pantsies off.

T. Mm-hm. You're taking his pants off.

C. Walk, walk, walk. Walking up to bed, walking up to bed. Three little children.

T. Three little children and two big people.

C. And another little baby. Here's me. I'm taking her clothes off. I'm going to bed. Now he's up. [Male doll.] Up and up and up. [Dressing male doll.] Little up, little up. Put your pants back on. Walky, walky, walky downstairs. [Female doll.] Walky, walky, walky downstairs. [Male doll.] Walky, walky, walky. [Another male doll.] [Walks baby doll downstairs.] I'm climbing up this ladder. Let's climb up the ladders. Just climbing up the ladders.

T. Mm-hm.

C. And the little one on top of the bed. [Middle doll.] The little one sleeps under the bed. [Baby doll.]

T. One on top, one underneath.

C. Two underneath. Here's the bedroom. [Bends figure balloon and squeezes it.] I like that noise. Squeak, squeak, squeak. This is a big bed. Here's your bed.

T. That's my bed, huh?

C. Who sleeps in that bed?

T. Anyone you want.

C. Me. This is my little chair. [Crouches and sits on bed.] How come this doesn't go? [Points to watch on arm.]

T. You wonder why it doesn't go.

C. Oh. Supper is open. Here's your supper.

T. Quite a supper.

C. That's my mother's watch. Just pretend it's your supper. [Turns handle of vise.] Zoom, zoom, zoom, zoom. Here's your supper. Eat it up. Don't eat

my mother's watch up. Just eat your supper up. Zoom, zoom, zoom. Here's your watch. Zoom, zoom, zoom. Here's your watch.

SECOND SESSION

C. [Talks to mother.] Are you gonna stay here? Here's a balloon. [Waves a balloon figure at T.] Good-bye. [To mother.] Mommy, leave your watch here. I want to see what time it is. [Looks at T's watch.] It will still be there tomorrow. [Puts balloon figure in upper part of doll house. Empties bag of dolls.] There. In the garbage can. [Walks to nursing bottles.] I'm gonna drink from this. [Drinks from large bottle and replaces it on bench.] He's gonna shoot you. [Cowboy figure.] Bang. Hoppy is gonna shoot you. Shoot and tie you up. All cowboys are shooting. [Handles soldiers and shoots T a few times.] Everyone is shot. [Squeezes figure balloon and it squeaks. Walks figure balloon up the stairs of doll house.] Walk, walk, walk. [Throws figure balloon aside. Sits on floor, fingers stairway. Picks up figure balloon and whispers.] She's going to sleep. Shall I take her head off?

T. That's up to you.

C. [Places balloon in box with blocks.] That's a block. [Picks up figure balloon again, brushes it against T's face.] I wanta take your glasses off.

T. You'd like to do that, but that's one thing you can't do here.

C. Let's pretend to play school. O.K.? And you're the teacher. O.K.?

T. And I'm the teacher.

C. [Cuts a piece of paper and folds it in half. Cuts paper along folded line and into quarters, looks at T, folds paper again and shows it to T.] I'm gonna give these to my mother. That's for Mother's Day.

T. Is that a Mother's Day present?

C. Yeah. [Cuts another piece of paper in two.] This is my mother's present, too.

T. You have quite a few to give your mother. You like to give her things, huh?

C. [Holds papers in hand.] These are my mother's and my daddy's, too. Just for my mother and daddy. [Lifts come-back toy.] He's a big clown.

T. Mm-hm.

C. [Carries come-back toy to T.] There. Walk, walk, walk, walk, walk.

T. There you go.

C. [Leans against come-back toy, pushing it down.]

T. You want it to go down.

C. Yeah. [Pushes come-back toy into sandbox.] He's crying.

T. You're making him cry.

C. Yeah. [Finally succeeds in pushing come-back toy into sandbox.]

T. There, you have it.

C. He's crying. Nobody's taking him out.

T. He is just going to stay in there all the time.

C. [Hands T papers that she has cut.] Will you fold these for my mother? And my dad.

T. For no one else.

C. Not even you.

T. Not even me.

C. No. [Starts to cut paper again. Continues; folds one half sheet in two again and places it on top of the others.] See? Some's for my family, and not for you, either.

T. Not for me.

C. No. [Cuts more paper.] Only one is for you, and this is all you're getting. Here. None for your mother. No. It's all mine and my mother's.

T. Just yours and your mother's.

C. I'll be the teacher and gather up your things. O.K., honey. Let's, honey. Yes, honey. Where's that paper? And you, honey. Honey, honey. I'm gonna sprinkle some. [Drops a handful of sand from sandbox into pail of water. Watches it. Takes more sand and drops it into pail. Looks at T and laughs.] It's all getting brown, isn't it? [Throws more sand into pail.] The floor is getting wet. [Continues to drop handfuls of sand into pail.] It's getting brown water.

T. Yes, it is. It's getting to be brown water.

C. [Throws more sand into pail.] I splashed my shoe. See? [Sprinkles some sand over come-back toy. Drops more sand into pail and waves her hands in the air.] I wanta go wash them.

T. You want to wash them? O.K.

C. [Leaves room with T.]

THIRD SESSION

C. [Waves good-bye to mother and runs into the room. Drops a handful of sand into pail of water.]

T. It went right in, didn't it?

C. Look how much. [Drops another, larger handful into pail and laughs.] A big splash. Splash. The water's getting brown. [Drops two more handfuls of sand into pail.]

T. It's getting browner and browner.

C. Mmm. Now I'm making pie. [Plays in sandbox.]

T. So you're making a pie, that's what.

C. Here's your pie.

T. Is that for me?

C. Mm. Take a shovel and eat it. Take a spoon and eat it.

T. You want me to eat it.

C. [Throws more sand into pail and smiles at T.] O.K. Here. [Gestures toward T with shovel.]

T. You want me to eat with that, huh?

C. Not really.

T. You just want me to pretend?

C. Yes.

T. Mm-hm.

C. I'm throwing it all over the floor. [Throws sand on the floor.]

T. You are?

C. Swoosh, swoosh, swoosh.

T. You really like that.

C. [Continues to play with sand.] Now this is a little cookie, and I'll put it in a plate.

T. Mm-hm.

C. Here. And I'll give you some more. [Throws more sand into pail.] It's getting dark blue.

T. That's what it's getting to be. Dark blue.

C. [Fills mold with sand, pats it, and gives it to T.] Eat it.

T. You want me to eat it now.

C. And then I'll give you some more. Eat it up. O.K. Now eat it.

T. Now you want me to eat it. Suppose that I don't want any more?

C. Then you won't get any dessert. Now eat it all up. O.K., now take it. Now pick it up now. Hello, hello, hello, hello. [Dials telephone.] Pretend I hear the phone bell ringing and I say hello, and you talk.

T. Oh, all right, we'll pretend that.

C. Hello?

T. Hello.

C. Who is this?

T. Who is that?

C. This is Susan, and she's playing here. Good-bye.

T. Good-bye.

T. [Sneezes.]

C. God bless you.

T. Thank you.

C. [Picks up large bottle and drinks. Replaces it on bench.] I like to play here.

T. You like coming here and playing.

C. [Walks over to balloon figure and kisses it. Tosses it into air and catches it several times while dancing around the room.]

T. Well, our time is up for today, Susan.

C. One more bouncy and I'll go up.

T. O.K., one more bouncy and we'll go.

C. [Throws balloon figure into air one more time. Lets it fall on floor.] O.K. Good-bye, good-bye. Good-bye, Mister.

T. Good-bye.

Susan's mother came in after this last session to tell the therapist that she was very happy about Susan, who had again become a pleasant child; that she was no longer afraid to leave Susan with the baby; that Susan showed more affection for the baby and had assumed some responsibilities in the baby's care.

Benefits of Play Therapy for These Two Children

Both Tommy and Susan used symbolic forms—boats and balloon figures—to localize their anxiety about a new baby in the family. The gains in both cases were growth in terms of emotional insight, a feeling of security and comfort within themselves. What they needed was an opportunity to express their attitudes in an accepting relationship where they could feel respected as individuals, whatever their feelings and perceptions about themselves and their families might be.

Situational play therapy provided these children with an opportunity to work out temporarily disturbing feelings, and so removed the possibility that these feelings would be repressed, lose their identification to reality, and perhaps eventually seriously damage the self by pervading it with free-floating or systematic anxiety. Freed from these temporarily disturbing feelings, these children were able to use their psychic energies to express their real selves, thereby freeing these energies for a fuller utilization of their potentialities in both personal and social situations.

☞ Accepting Regional Language Differences in School

LOREN R. TOMLINSON

Our language is not static, but living, developing, and changing. Neither is it uniform throughout the land at any specific point in time. Speech varies with the particular cultural background of the individual and in tone, accent, and rhythm according to the region in which he lives. These regional differences in speech can be identified in terms of large geographical areas, but the varieties within and among the areas are myriad. Although they are fairly distinct, regional differences in language have presented no significant barrier to communication. Actually, our language has been enlarged and enriched by these variations, rather than by duplication of some static standard.

Although schools have always had to contend with differences, by and large, schools in the past have had only infrequent direct contact with regional language differences and have been content to ignore them or to treat them incidentally. However, in recent years new developments in transportation and communication have brought the regions into a closer relationship. Moreover, population statistics show that great numbers of people are moving about the country from one region to another, some temporarily, others permanently.

These large scale migrations give rise to numerous social problems, many of which confront the schools. The school administrator must provide more classroom space and facilities, more materials of instruction, and additional instructional staff to meet the demands of increased enrollments. An even more crucial challenge confronts the classroom teacher,

REPRINTED FROM *ELEMENTARY ENGLISH*, 30, 7 (NOVEMBER 1953), 420-423, WITH THE PERMISSION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AND THE AUTHOR.

since the children coming in from various parts of the country bring with them different backgrounds of experience which often cause them to contrast with the native children. Inasmuch as these children may differ somewhat in dress, sometimes in color, and almost always in speech, problems of adjustment on the part of both groups frequently develop. Each aspect of their differences may present problems with significant implications, and speech is no exception.

It is the responsibility of the classroom teacher to help both the native and the migrant children come to understand and appreciate each other's differences and develop those attitudes which are appropriate in a democracy. In his direct, daily relationship with the children, the classroom teacher plays the key role. The solution of the problem transcends curriculum design, for the most carefully planned curriculum is subject to the quality of the teacher's professional understandings and personal attitudes.

In the classroom where there are regional differences in language, it would seem to be of primary importance that the teacher create an atmosphere in which these differences are respected. In helping children achieve socially accepted standards of language, the teacher should keep in mind that these standards do not deny certain regional characteristics of tone, accent, rhythm, and idiom. As the teacher's attitude toward language variations becomes apparent to the children, it will do much toward influencing the attitudes that they take. The development of a desirable atmosphere requires more than passive acceptance or mere toleration of differences. The teacher can take the lead by encouraging all children to participate in language activities, particularly those involving oral language. At appropriate times interesting variations in pronunciations and usage can be explored on the children's intellectual level. In the lower elementary school, this may be done most effectively through simple discussions with the children. Older children can become quite interested in charting, for purposes of comparison, the major variations as they appear in speech and literature. Consideration of these language differences and their backgrounds not only increases the children's understanding, but also affords the teacher opportunities to emphasize, in a meaningful way to children, those common intergroup likenesses which underlie superficial differences. As the children discover the contributions of various regional groups to our living language, they develop the concept of cultural interdependence and are able to think more clearly about differences and likenesses on a broader scale.

Not all classrooms have members representing different regions or opportunities to contact the language of other regions firsthand. Fortunately, most normal children have a keen, innate interest in language. Unless their enthusiasm is destroyed by an unimaginative school language program, they express this interest in various ways. Early in the elementary school children become fascinated with words and their meanings. Later they seem to take particular delight in confounding adults with unusual words and expressions which they adopt or create. This is all a part of the process of growing up. Schools will do well to make effective use of this natural interest in helping children develop understandings related to regional language.

Children can have many satisfying experiences with language as they work in the social studies. In the middle and upper elementary school they frequently have occasion to undertake units of work closely associated with a particular region. In addition to a consideration of the geographical features and the way the people live, profitable study can be made of the language peculiar to the region. To the extent that the language reflects their characteristics, understandings of the people can be enriched. Later in the course of the unit of work, as children attempt to organize and clarify the knowledge that they have acquired, they may choose activities directly involving language. These activities may take the form of dramatics, original story telling, creative writing, singing, audience reading, and the like. Children enjoy using regional dialect in such activities and certainly its use can enhance the child's understanding and appreciation of both the people and their language.

With the exception of firsthand experience, the growing body of children's regional literature probably offers the best medium for helping children develop a sensitiveness to language differences. Well-written stories of this type have a strong emotional and intellectual appeal for children in the middle and upper elementary school. As the child reads and lives the story he frequently identifies himself with a sympathetic character. It is not unusual to observe children become so immersed in such reading that they assume for a time the speech and manner of their favorite personality. Skillful authors of regional literature can so expertly develop the background of the way of life of the region that the manner of speech and expressions used by the characters seem only natural and fitting to the reader. This kind of acceptance establishes the emotional tone for deeper appreciations and understandings which the teacher can help the children develop.

Unfortunately, regional speech is not always easily captured in writing. In an effort to convey a particular quality, authors sometimes resort to unusual devices which may confuse the inexperienced reader. Children who have heard the speech of a region have less difficulty with it in printed form. For those children who have no direct contact with speech variations, phonograph records done in regional language are available. The richest source for these children, however, is the teacher who reads regional dialect well. Not only can he further the children's interest in books in general, but he can also provide the background which they need for reading regional literature with a fuller enjoyment and understanding.

A less direct, but not less important, concomitant benefit which children may gain through the study of regional language has to do with the problem of prejudice. Just how prejudice develops in the child has not been thoroughly explored on a scientific basis. We do know that it is not a natural form of behavior and that children acquire it from adults. There is considerable evidence to support the idea that it can be effectively combated by increased understanding. One form of prejudice is directed toward regional language. As children become acquainted with differences in regional language and come to appreciate them, a long step is taken toward the elimination of that form of prejudice.

Meaningful experiences with regional language through firsthand contact, in the social studies, through regional literature, and in other ways can help children realize the value of diversity in a language and in a democracy. Just as our democracy looks to differences in individuals and groups for sources of wholesome growth, so does our living language. Geographical variations add considerably to the interest of our speech and they persist in spite of some rather constant forces against them. Traditionally, schools have attempted to standardize language on a formal level. Mass media of speech, especially radio and television, are working indirectly toward a less formal standard of language. Undoubtedly, both have done much toward improving the quality of speech in this country. However, neither should be regarded as an unmixed blessing. Ultimately they would standardize the tongue to a dead, awful sameness and have it become like a mass produced loaf of bread, near perfect in quality, but as devoid of flavor and distinctiveness.

☞ The Case Study— A Means of Introducing Guidance Services

GAIL F. FARWELL

ANTHONY C. RICCIO

Although it is axiomatic that a good school provides guidance services for its pupils, there are still many schools in which organized guidance programs do not exist. Jones and Miller state that in the 1951-52 academic year, only 17.2 per cent of the 23,746 high schools they studied had at least a half-time counselor.[1] Historically, attempts to organize guidance programs at the elementary school level have lagged behind those at the secondary level.

If we assume that guidance services ought to be an integral part of all school systems, we must consider means of introducing these services into those systems where they do not as yet exist. The case study can often be used to establish a guidance point of view. Initiated by a principal, a part-time counselor, interested teachers, or a consultant from a nearby college or university, the case study might be employed to demonstrate how much it is possible to learn about a student. Teachers may possibly realize for the first time the tremendous amount of interest and knowledge that can be generated by a group committed to the task of learning more about an individual. Indeed, once materials have been organized, the classroom teacher may be truly surprised to discover how much he knows or does not know about a particular student.

This article is intended to offer a rationale for the case study and to demonstrate how it might be employed as a vehicle through which to introduce organized guidance services into a school system.

REPRINTED FROM *THE NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL*, 40, 7 (MAY 1961), 38-40,
BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHORS.

Rationale of the Case Study

The case study is an endeavor to focus all the school's facilities on the task of understanding an individual student. It represents an attempt to understand a student in terms of his self-concept, his environment, and his interpersonal relations. It aims at the development of self-insight and self-realization on the part of the student.

Like most other concepts in the field of guidance, the case study concept rests upon these basic principles: (1) Human behavior is caused; (2) Behavior can be modified; (3) Teachers can be provided preparation which will help them in working with students to modify their behavior; and (4) The integrity and sacredness of the individual demand that he be considered a subject worthy of study and assistance.

With these principles in mind, it may be stated that the case study concept is comprised of three interrelated processes. First, an attempt is made to assemble the necessary meaningful data about the individual. Second, means of helping the subject are considered and followed through. Finally, there is positive action and self-direction on the part of the subject. In its most complete sense, the case study is a unified attempt by the school staff to assist a given individual to realize his optimum potential. As such, it is applicable to all students—the normal as well as the atypical.

The Case Study Procedure

As a basic first step in conducting a case study, an interested person has to take the initiative. This person might be a teacher, administrator, counselor, or school psychologist.

His initial job is to develop a case history of the individual pupil who is to be studied. If there is a good cumulative record available, the case history will be rather easy to up-date. If no comprehensive cumulative record has been maintained, information will have to be gathered about personal identification, pre-school experiences, home background, significant school experiences, the testing record, and the academic record. As a step toward initiating a guidance program, the person conducting the case study should keep a log of activities necessary to the development of the case history. In this way, the school staff can see the complexity of doing a case study from the beginning and learn to appreciate the value of an organized inventory service in simplifying the case study procedure.

In collecting information and establishing a case study, we should keep in mind that to load the case study with irrelevant information is a waste of time. We should include only useful information. Many times during the process of a longitudinal case study, it will be desirable to delete, rather than add, information. To fail to delete out-dated information is to deny the individual the right to change, to deny his right to *become*.

After the assembling of data, the action phase of the case study begins. A case conference should be arranged, involving appropriate members of the school staff, the parents, and other persons concerned with the child's development. From it should come a tentative appraisal of the current situation and an uncovering of background information not previously revealed. The next action would be the recommendation of steps directly associated with the pupil. This helping relationship might involve home consultation with the family, counseling with the boy or girl, intensive therapy by an agency equipped to provide such a service, or remedial work. An adjusted program of studies, a recommendation for further or lesser involvement in activities, or the procurement of a part-time job might be suggested. The nature of the specific case would dictate the choice of the action techniques.

The case study is never completely terminated. At the close of the action phase, the pertinent data becomes a part of the child's longitudinal developmental record. To reopen the case study then becomes a rather easy task.

If members of a school staff attempt some selected case studies and understand the steps necessary to develop a comprehensive case study, if they understand the scope and activities of an organized guidance program, and if they see a longitudinal developmental portrait of growth and development as desirable in assisting the pupil, the case study procedure can provide guidelines for initiating and maintaining a guidance program.

An Example

In Jenkins School, a newly employed counselor received a referral from a fourth-grade teacher. A case study seemed desirable. The new counselor was conscious of the fact that organized guidance procedures had not been a characteristic of this school's program. The counselor went to the record file to seek information about Billy. The cupboard was bare of significant information other than simple identifying information, the

school levels enrolled in, the academic record, and grades received.

Mr. Brown, the counselor, then proceeded to gather data for a case history. He made a home visit to determine familial status and impact, preschool experiences, and current viewpoint of both parents. Mr. Brown's log showed the necessity of three visits involving six hours and 30 miles of driving. Billy had been given standardized tests but the results had not been recorded and the tests could not be located. Billy was then subjected to several standardized tests. The time involvement was 13 hours, counting administration and scoring.

There were no anecdotal reports from Billy's teachers so summary reports were requested from his current teachers—total time involved for all staff, nine hours. His previous teachers were also consulted but they could only make generalizations; specific observations were now clouded because of the passage of time and valuable insights were lost forever. Soliciting this information took four hours. The family physician and clergyman and Billy's club director were consulted, requiring four and one-half hours for Mr. Brown.

All told, it took thirty-six and one-half hours of staff time during a two-week period to assemble the case history. The case conference and action phase with Billy were not yet accounted for. If this school had had an organized guidance activity, the case history would have been assembled over a four-year period. This skeleton example should provide some clues to the value of guidance organization.

Value of the Case Study

If guidance services are to be introduced into a school system, they must be deemed worthwhile by the administrator and his staff. Since the case study utilizes so many of the techniques characteristic of a good guidance program, it might well be employed to demonstrate the efficacy of a host of guidance techniques. A case study could reveal how the results of a school-wide testing program, which were not formerly utilized, might be applied to gain a better understanding of a given individual. A case study might also point up dramatically how the curriculum pattern followed in a school either fails or succeeds in meeting the most basic needs of the individual being studied. It can also result in professional growth for the principal and his staff. The case study often helps to focus attention upon the relationship between home and school and clarifies the reasons for a student who must reside in these oftentimes disparate

environments performing the way he does. Indeed, the case study is a means of evaluating the school program as it affects the lives of given individuals.

Although the case study is an intensive organized study of one individual, it can easily be employed to make thorough studies of the entire student body. If each teacher conducts one case study a month, there will be data on each child in the school after a period of three or four years. It is then not too difficult a matter to continue the procedure and prepare studies on new pupils. If case studies are begun in the elementary school and continued throughout the years a child is in school, they will become the basis for a pupil inventory service. The action phase of the case study has implications for the information, counseling, and placement aspects of the guidance program.[2]

For the case study technique to be successful, certain conditions must be present: (1) Teachers must become skilled in collecting, interpreting, and acting upon data; (2) The school administration must support the activity and provide time for its operation; (3) The school staff must recognize this procedure as a means of promoting a developmental picture of the individual and as the common thread to which a developmental program of guidance services may be attached.

Pressey and Robinson have pointed out that the child falling within the wide range of normalcy is the most neglected child in our public school system.[3] Teachers have a tendency to give attention, positive or negative, to the atypical child. Oftentimes, students of average achievement can become superior students if they are understood and encouraged on an individual basis to excel. The case study is a most desirable means of motivating the average achiever to abdicate mediocrity.

The case study is a means of making our schools better through a thorough and intensive study of the most important product of our schools—our children. In the case study concept is found the culmination of the services and developments that the guidance movement has contributed to the modern American school.

REFERENCES

1. A.J. Jones and L.M. Miller, "The National Picture of Pupil Personnel and Guidance Services in 1953," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 38 (February 1954), 119.
2. Gail F. Farwell and Herman J. Peters, "Guidance: A Longitudinal and Differential View," *The Elementary School Journal*, 57 (May 1957), 442-445.
3. Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, *Psychology and the New Education* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944), p. 329.

Part Three

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
CHILD AND THE WORLD
OF WORK

☞ Vocational Guidance in the Elementary School

WALTER M. LIFTON

The swell in the number of textbooks written for people involved in guidance in elementary schools is but one indication of the increasing concern of professional workers with their responsibility for providing help at this level. Counselor Trainers find an increasing proportion of their classes contain students working in the elementary schools. This article is devoted specifically to a discussion of the role and use of vocational guidance in the elementary grades.

☞ The Growing Concern

For some time now writers in the field have pointed out the marked discrepancy between children's concerns and the manner in which the textbooks and teachers meet them. Specifically Bennett[1] in evaluating the results of the Midwest Conference of State Supervisors of Guidance Services and Counselor Trainers[2] held in 1950 as well as the results of the SRA Junior Inventory points up the real and growing concern of youngsters over their academic and vocational future. She documents clearly the fact that, based on SRA Junior Inventory responses, their answers to the question "I'd like to know what I'm going to be when I grow up" remained approximately the same from grades 4 through 8 accounting for 38, 41, 38, 36, and 40 per cent respectively of responses for each grade.

Hoppock[3], beyond suggesting ways occupational concepts could be introduced into the schools, points up the need to integrate the presen-

REPRINTED FROM *THE VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE QUARTERLY*, 8 (WINTER 1959), 79-81, BY PERMISSION OF THE PUBLISHERS AND THE AUTHOR.

tation of the material into the existing curricula of the schools. Certainly the incorporation of any data into the curriculum today is dependent on both parent and teacher attitude. With this in mind two studies are worth reviewing.

Shores and Rudman[4, 5] surveyed 270 communities to see how closely parent's, teacher's, librarian's, and children's evaluation of children's reading interests and informational needs (grades 4-8) coincided. A few of their results are cited. They found that girls more frequently than boys wanted to ask about horses, dogs, vocations, boy-girl relationships, ethics, values, and religion. Parents show a particularly strong desire for children to ask questions about vocations. Teachers are more concerned with social skills. It is also possible that teachers consider the elementary school years as inappropriate for serious concern with vocations.

They also found that children are not necessarily interested in asking about the same things that they wanted to read about.

An Exploratory Study

The second study was conducted by the author. It was concerned with the implication that teachers might not be aware of the early age at which attitudes and values about the world of work begin to crystallize. It was also concerned with the emphasis on vocations, in terms of career planning, rather than utilizing the elementary grades as a place where curiosity about the world might help broaden a youngster's perspective.

Two beginning classes in guidance provided subjects for the survey. The students in these classes were primarily teachers in the elementary schools and did not plan on professional guidance careers but wished instead to increase their classroom effectiveness. Each teacher was asked to consider which occupations they could use as illustrations of classroom concepts. To insure real occupational sophistication they were restricted to only those jobs in which they knew training requirements, salary levels, and job opportunities. Using the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* categories their responses were tallied. Professions led the list by far, followed by sales and clerical tasks, with skilled trades barely showing. The job distribution was in *almost exact* reverse to the distribution of jobs resulting from census data.

The teachers were then asked to go through all of the books used in

their classes and to make a list of any occupation used as an illustration. Again the results were fascinating.

In the primary grades there was a heavy emphasis on service occupations. There was then a rapid shift in the upper grades to the professions, with the skilled trades again being barely represented. In other words, from both their teachers and their texts youngsters were receiving a distorted picture of the importance and types of jobs available.

Realizing that these teachers could not help youngsters secure a true picture of the world of work if their own experiences and textbooks did not offer help, the author then began a survey of books available in the area of occupations to develop a list teachers could use to supplement their background. Again the results were surprising. From a series of books for the early primary grades published by Children's Press there appears to be a complete vacuum until books for junior high school youngsters like the Dodds Meade series occur. To verify this finding the author approached several major book publishers to explore their interest in books describing the world of work and designed for grades 3-6. Repeatedly the answer given was that they do not have, nor do they plan to publish books of this type because "children are not interested in vocations."

Serious Questions Arise

All of these results raise for guidance counselors several serious questions. If these results based upon small samples hold true in more controlled studies several avenues are available to the profession to improve the situation. Guidance supervisors might encourage teachers to engage in more field trips where the emphasis of both pupils and teacher would be directed on the workers and the skills they utilize. Parents might be encouraged to come to school and share with the children information about their jobs. Teachers could be encouraged to seek different types of employment during summers. Publishers could be encouraged to put out materials which they then could be sure of selling.

The above material suggests a rather negative picture. There are several recent advances, however, worth noting. Several of the leading encyclopedias have completed major revisions of their entries on careers and vocations. In almost all cases the number of pages allotted has been vastly increased. At least two publishers utilize a guidance consultant to

tation of the material into the existing curricula of the schools. Certainly the incorporation of any data into the curriculum today is dependent on both parent and teacher attitude. With this in mind two studies are worth reviewing.

Shores and Rudman[4, 5] surveyed 270 communities to see how closely parent's, teacher's, librarian's, and children's evaluation of children's reading interests and informational needs (grades 4-8) coincided. A few of their results are cited. They found that girls more frequently than boys wanted to ask about horses, dogs, vocations, boy-girl relationships, ethics, values, and religion. Parents show a particularly strong desire for children to ask questions about vocations. Teachers are more concerned with social skills. It is also possible that teachers consider the elementary school years as inappropriate for serious concern with vocations.

They also found that children are not necessarily interested in asking about the same things that they wanted to read about.

An Exploratory Study

The second study was conducted by the author. It was concerned with the implication that teachers might not be aware of the early age at which attitudes and values about the world of work begin to crystallize. It was also concerned with the emphasis on vocations, in terms of career planning, rather than utilizing the elementary grades as a place where curiosity about the world might help broaden a youngster's perspective.

Two beginning classes in guidance provided subjects for the survey. The students in these classes were primarily teachers in the elementary schools and did not plan on professional guidance careers but wished instead to increase their classroom effectiveness. Each teacher was asked to consider which occupations they could use as illustrations of classroom concepts. To insure real occupational sophistication they were restricted to only those jobs in which they knew training requirements, salary levels, and job opportunities. Using the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* categories their responses were tallied. Professions led the list by far, followed by sales and clerical tasks, with skilled trades barely showing. The job distribution was in *almost exact* reverse to the distribution of jobs resulting from census data.

The teachers were then asked to go through all of the books used in

their classes and to make a list of any occupation used as an illustration. Again the results were fascinating.

In the primary grades there was a heavy emphasis on service occupations. There was then a rapid shift in the upper grades to the professions, with the skilled trades again being barely represented. In other words, from both their teachers and their texts youngsters were receiving a distorted picture of the importance and types of jobs available.

Realizing that these teachers could not help youngsters secure a true picture of the world of work if their own experiences and textbooks did not offer help, the author then began a survey of books available in the area of occupations to develop a list teachers could use to supplement their background. Again the results were surprising. From a series of books for the early primary grades published by Children's Press there appears to be a complete vacuum until books for junior high school youngsters like the Dodds Meade series occur. To verify this finding the author approached several major book publishers to explore their interest in books describing the world of work and designed for grades 3-6. Repeatedly the answer given was that they do not have, nor do they plan to publish books of this type because "children are not interested in vocations."

Serious Questions Arise

All of these results raise for guidance counselors several serious questions. If these results based upon small samples hold true in more controlled studies several avenues are available to the profession to improve the situation. Guidance supervisors might encourage teachers to engage in more field trips where the emphasis of both pupils and teacher would be directed on the workers and the skills they utilize. Parents might be encouraged to come to school and share with the children information about their jobs. Teachers could be encouraged to seek different types of employment during summers. Publishers could be encouraged to put out materials which they then could be sure of selling.

The above material suggests a rather negative picture. There are several recent advances, however, worth noting. Several of the leading encyclopedias have completed major revisions of their entries on careers and vocations. In almost all cases the number of pages allotted has been vastly increased. At least two publishers utilize a guidance consultant to

insure that all articles in their encyclopedias present a more realistic picture of the world of work and job opportunities. One anthological encyclopedia[6] has introduced a vocational game which appears throughout the volumes. The game is designed to help children see how their interests persist from one industry to another. They also are given a chance to think about work activities on several hundred jobs. Recently a social studies series on the third grade level focused on "Working Together"[7] utilized skilled trades among their many examples. There is a book[8] on the world of work for use in grades 4-5 now being given a pilot run in three cities to test children's interests and the correct placing of this kind of material. One city system[9] has developed a course for use in grades 7-8 to help children who may not be continuing on to high school.

It is obvious that many questions requiring research have been raised. Equally necessary is the development of texts to meet the developing needs of schools for vocational guidance materials. If the age old concept of guidance as a lifelong process is to remain true, greater attention to the role of the elementary school can no longer be delayed.

REFERENCES

1. Margaret Bennett, *Guidance in Groups* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955), 54, 246.
2. National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, *A National Study of Existing and Recommended Practices for Assisting Youth Adjustment in Selected Elementary Schools of the United States* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: Ann Arbor Publishers, 1953), pp. 40-44.
3. Robert Hoppock, *Occupational Information* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957), p. 351.
4. Harlan J. Shores and Herbert C. Rudman, *What Children Are Interested In* (Champaign, Ill.: Spencer Press, 1954), p. 16.
5. Herbert C. Rudman, "Interrelationships Among Various Aspects of Children's Interests and Informational Needs and Expectations of Teachers, Parents, and Librarians" (Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, 1954).
6. Walter M. Lifton, "Ask Yourself," throughout 18 volumes of *Our Wonderful World* (Chicago: Spencer Press, 1957).
7. Alta McIntire and Wilhelmina Hill, *Working Together* (Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1954).
8. Walter M. Lifton, *What Could I Be?* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960).
9. Martin Burack (unpublished course materials for City of Chicago elementary schools course on vocations, Grades 7-8).

The Roots of Careers

ROBERT P. O'HARA

Boston College

Mothers, fathers, and teachers often wonder what children will be when they grow up.

During the past half-century this wonder has been translated into efforts to predict occupational choice by statistical methods. More recently the choice of an occupation has been thought of as a process of development.

In 1951 Ginzberg and his associates set forth the theory that occupational choice is a process that progresses through three stages: fantasy choice, tentative choice, and realistic choice.[1]

In the first stage, boys and girls make choices that are not related to the adult world of work in a logical fashion but rather in an imaginative, dream-world fashion.

The second stage, which Ginzberg called the tentative stage, has three substages. In the first of these, the interest stage, boys and girls, speaking of the work they want to do, may say, "It's an interesting job," "I like the work," "It's exciting."

Children at the second substage, the capacity stage, may make such statements as, "I'm good at math," "French is my best subject," "I've won several medals in swimming."

Children at the third substage base their choices on values. They may say: "It's a good paying job," "I'd like to be able to stay in one place and have lots of friends," "I'd like to travel," "This kind of work gives you the satisfaction of doing something for others."

REPRINTED FROM *THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL*, 62, 5 (FEBRUARY 1962), 277-280, BY PERMISSION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS AND THE AUTHOR.

During the realistic stage, the child considers all the factors involved simultaneously, while he explores and arrives at the final choice.

Ginzberg reported that boys and girls pass through the substages in the order stated within fairly regular age limits: interest, at eleven to twelve years of age; capacity, at thirteen to fourteen years of age; value, at fifteen to sixteen years of age. A pilot study led us to wonder whether these three substages might not have earlier starting points.[2]

In the Ginzberg study, the existence of the stages was determined by the fact that boys in the sixth and seventh grades based their choices primarily on interest, while in Grades 8 and 9 the basis for choice was capacity and in Grades 10 and 11 the choices were based largely on value.

To search for the use of similar bases for choice in public elementary school, 829 boys and 750 girls from a suburban-industrial community of Greater Boston were asked two questions: "What sort of person do you want to become?" And "Why do you want to be that kind of person?" The written answers were gathered in May, 1959.

TABLE 1 Bases for Occupational Choices of 829 Boys and 750 Girls in Grades 4-6

GRADE	PUPILS		CHOICES		BASES		INTEREST		VALUE		FAMILY		CAPACITY		OTHER	
	No.		No.		No.		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Boys:																
4	286		308		352		155	44	123	35	56	16	7	2	11	3
5	257		305		349		171	49	112	32	52	15	7	2	7	2
6	286		327		389		206	53	132	34	31	8*	12	3	8	2
Girls:																
4	248		275		315		110	35†	170	54†	13	4	6	2	16	5
5	211		252		287		100	35†	141	49†	26	9	6	2	14	5
6	291		369		434		161	37†	226	52‡	17	4	8	2	22	5

* Significantly different from 4th grade.

* Significantly different from the fourth grade at the .01 level of confidence.

† Significantly different from the corresponding interest base for boys at the .01 level of confidence.

‡ Significantly different from the corresponding value base for boys at the .01 level of confidence.

☞ The Boys' Choices

For our content analysis we classified the statements into the categories suggested by the Ginzberg study. The findings are presented in Table 1.

Between boys of high intelligence and boys of average intelligence there were no significant differences or even trends in the data within grades or from one grade to another. For boys in Grades 4, 5, and 6, interests were clearly the dominant basis for choice by the sixth grade.